The Nation.

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The Week.

If we had been asked beforehand where Mr. Edmunds would be found in any debate on the "blocks-of-five" letter written by Dudley in the last Presidential campaign, we should have said that he would not be found pettifogging the case for Dudley, throwing doubts on the authenticity of the letter, or seeking to extenuate the offence by saying to the accusers of Dudley, "You're another." Undoubtedly the Democrats of Indiana have sins enough to answer for. That fact does not improve the character of Dudley's offence. Nor is any presentation of it helpful unless accompanied with unsparing exposure and denunciation of both. Mr. Edmunds's treatment of it, we regret to say, was that of a criminal lawyer retained by the defence, not that of a Senator charged to see that the republic receives no detriment. What would such a man as Abraham Lincoln have said under like circumstances? Mr. Lincoln was as stout a partisan as Mr. Edmunds, and he was by no means unskilled in the arts of the politician or averse to employing them for party advantage. Yet on a question involving the integrity and permanency of republican government, which requires above all things an unbought vote and an unpurchasable people, he would have said: "I join you, Senator Voorhees, and every other man, of whatever political faith, in the severest condemnation of the Dudley letter and the writer thereof and the accessories thereto. I believe that you and your friends have been guilty of the same offences in times past, and that your present indignation arises principally from the fact that you were hurt; but none the less do I support, with my whole soul, every proposition which looks to the establishment of the truth in this matter, and the exposure and punishment of the guilty so far as we may be able to reach them." Would not the Republican party have been benefited if its foremost Senator had taken this elevated point of view?

Gen. B. F. Butler has joined the ranks of the anti-ballot-reformers, imparting a final touch of moral grandeur to the collection. Its members now are Gov. Hill, ex-Gov. Foraker, Mr. Halstead, Senator Gorman, Capt. Boutelle, C. A. Dana, and Gen. Butler. Here is a nucleus for a party which might run two of its members on a Presidential ticket with a chance of polling almost as many votes in this city as Butler did in 1884—that is, 3,499. The Butler organ in that campaign is obviously eager to repeat the experiment, for it gives up a half column of its first page to a report of Butler's views on the Australian system, which, it is needless to say, are very contemptuous. A ticket like Hill and Butler, or Butler and Foraker, or Gorman and Boutelle, or Butler and Halstead, or Foraker and Dana, would be certain to poll the "party's" entire strength, and to have the enthusiastic support of the ex-Butler organ in this city and that of the ex-penitentiary convict in Albany.

"Corp." Tanner denounced civil-service reform at the same Boston banquet at which Gen. Butler expressed his contempt for ballot reform, but the most interesting portion of his remarks was that devoted to his career as Pension Commissioner, and the reasons for its sudden ending. He said that the Republicans carried Indiana for Harrison by the votes of Democratic soldiers, and that those votes were secured because he, Tanner, "personally, and amid the plaudits of every Republican in that State, plastered that State two feet thick, from the north to the south, with the promises of what the Republican party would do for the soldiers if they came into power." He added that he tried to keep these promises when he was put in charge of the Pension Bureau, but the day came when his self-respect demanded that he should say, "One figure I will not cut in official life: I will not prove myself the liar of an Administration." Who did prove to be the liar of the Administration, he did not point out; but he placed the full responsibility for his course in the Bureau upon the President, where it belongs, by adding: "His was a wise declaration who said it was no time to use the apothecary's scales when you come to weigh the services of the men who saved the nation. I believe in that. I quoted it freely. I tried to obey the injunction to keep within the law and be liberal to the boys."

The election of Mr. Calvin S. Brice as Senator from Ohio will bring up for discussion in that body the meaning and intendment of art. i., sec. 3, clause iii., of the Constitution of the United States, viz.:

> "No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, *when elected*, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen."

If Mr. Brice were elected to the Senate from New York instead of Ohio, no question would or could be raised respecting his right to a seat in that body. The question then arises whether a person can be an inhabitant of two States at the same time in the purview of the clause quoted above. We think that such a contention would deprive the clause of all meaning, because if he can be an inhabitant of two States, he can be an inhabitant of forty-two States. In other words, any man is eligible to any Senatorial vacancy in any State—a plain *reductio ad absurdum*. It is idle to speculate on the view the Senate may take of this question next year, when Mr. Brice's credentials are presented, but it is quite certain that he will not be admitted to a seat without a thorough overhauling of the constitutional points in the case. Residence, citizenship, and inhabitancy are different things. In discriminating between them the Senate is not restricted to the rules of evidence applicable to the courts of law. The fact of inhabitancy will undoubtedly be inquired into carefully, not because of any objections to Mr. Brice as an individual, but because the question which his election presents is a fundamental one.

The annual reports of the Civil-Service Commissioners of this State and Massachusetts refute once more by their statistics the wearisome charge of the opponents of competitive examinations that these are in the interest of college graduates and against the common people. In Massachusetts, out of 1,016 persons who passed the examinations, 926 were educated in the common schools and only 27 had attended college. In New York, of 157 who passed the competitive examinations, 96 had been educated in the common schools, 46 in academies, and only 15 in colleges. In both States the Commissioners declare that there has been a great improvement in the character of the employees in the minor positions of the State service. The Massachusetts Commissioners say that they "have had the cordial support of the Governor and Council and the Legislature, and their work has met the approval of appointing officers who, now that the system is thoroughly understood, quite generally acknowledge its relief to them, its justice to applicants to office, and its benefit to the public service." The New York Commissioners say that their predecessors "adopted a resolution, which is awaiting the Governor's sanction, which applies the civil-service examinations to all positions in the Senate and Assembly, with the exception of the Clerk of each house." It is to be feared that the changes which Gov. Hill has made in the New York Commission, by practically forcing the retirement of Gen. Sickles and of Mr. Manning, will not be conducive to increased usefulness in its work during the present year.

The retirement from office, at the end of his term, of Mr. B. R. English, Postmaster at New Haven, together with the story of the obstacles which he has met in applying to the office civil-service rules, is peculiarly instructive as showing the resistance which the reform is encountering, and must hereafter encounter, at the hands of the "practical politicians" of both of the two great parties. Mr. English succeeded as Postmaster of the city Mr. N. D. Sperry, who had held the place previously for more than twenty years, and who served out his term under Mr. Cleveland. Although, during the first year of Mr. English's administration, there were some complaints of the local postal service, there have, of late years, been none. Perhaps in no office of the country during the four years has the civil-service principle been more rigidly enforced. Out of the twenty-three clerks whom Mr. English found in the office, nearly one-half now remain at the end of the four years. Of the twenty-three letter-carriers, ten are left. Of the

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whole forty-six, fifteen have been removed, and, according to the Postmaster's statement, every one of these for causes quite disconnected with politics. Twice during the four years the New Haven Civil-Service Reform Association has investigated the office, and each time it has commended in the highest terms the Postmaster's record. To show Mr. English's spirit, it may be stated that, during the last Presidential campaign, certain Democratic managers met with a curt refusal when they asked his permission to "go through" the office, for the purpose of asking party contributions, and, furthermore, were told that they had no business to ask for such contributions at all. His course since taking office has naturally made him the target of severe party criticism, particularly when the Presidential election returns showed a loss of a hundred or more votes in the city's Democratic plurality.

Under the circumstances it might be supposed that Mr. English would at least have escaped attack from Republican opponents for violation of the Civil-Service Law. Fancy, then, his amazement last summer when he was informed from the Post-office Department at Washington that he was charged with allowing party contributions to be collected in his office. He went at once to Washington, where he obtained an interview with Mr. Wanamaker. The Postmaster-General drew from a pigeon-hole a portly bundle of manuscripts signed by certain names, and informed Mr. English briefly of the substance of the charges, which the Postmaster met with a sweeping denial. Mr. English's request to be allowed to see the papers, or at least to be told the names of his accusers, Mr. Wanamaker abruptly refused. An inspector whom Mr. Wanamaker afterwards sent on to look into the charges found them groundless, and they are commonly believed to have been the work of local Republican politicians, "stealing weapons of the Lord to serve Satan," and with the object of driving Mr. English from office before the expiration of his term. But from that day to this Mr. English's utmost efforts have failed to disclose either the details of the charges or their authors; and, under prevailing conditions at Washington, he must count himself uncommonly fortunate in being able to serve out his term.

Congressmen and newspapers, in discussing the causes and the consequences of the recent hat-band and bonnet-trimming decision, must keep it in mind that the decision, if obeyed (it may not be) by a protectionist Administration, will compel not only a refund to Postmaster-General Wanamaker and other importers, but a change in the rate of tax from 50 to 20 per cent. The law of 1883 is still in force. How can importing merchants safely do business when, without the consent of Congress, a rate is suddenly put up 30 per cent., and then put down 30 per cent.? All such jerks will cease if the Treasury will only obey the Supreme Court rule, which commands that, in cases of real ambiguity in the language used by Congress, the lowest and not the highest rate shall be levied by customs officers. Congress should compel itself to use precise language in tax laws, and compel itself by a new legislative declaration that, where it has spoken ambiguously, the lowest tax shall be imposed. That could do no harm, for Congress can always quickly correct its own blunders. But the tariff beneficiaries will not tolerate clear and explicit words in tax laws.

The exhibition of greed among the tariff beneficiaries at Washington continues from day to day and becomes rather more disgusting. The general features are pretty well known and understood, but there are some special features that should be carefully remarked. Mr. Knight of Massachusetts, for example, wanted a new arrangement of the duty on buttons so that it would "increase the duty on low grades and give a slight decrease on the expensive goods." Mr. Knight is wise as a serpent in this matter, and in making this request he follows a line of distinguished precedents. Tariff taxes, in order to be really beneficial to the protected classes, must not fail to hit the poor because they are the bulk of the population. Those who buy low grades of buttons are 90 to 95 per cent. of the population. Give Mr. Knight a chance to tax all the sewing women in the country and he will "let up" on the millionaires with the greatest pleasure. In like manner Mr. Torrey, also of Massachusetts, wanted a larger increase of duty on low-grade razors than on high-grade. And this witness had the impudence to admit that he was now making a fair profit on the razors he sold, but said that he wanted to enlarge his business, and he believed that he could do this if he could have low-grade foreign razors excluded. He employed about seventy men, he said, but of course he represented American labor, the 70,000 barbers in the United States being presumably foreigners, or at all events of no account.

The question of the sugar duties is reaching an acute stage, and one which is likely to give Chairman McKinley much trouble. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* endorses the position taken by ex-Gov. Warmoth of Louisiana and Representative Peters of Kansas, that the sugar-growers do not want a bounty of one cent per pound or of any other rate per pound. A bounty, it says, could not possibly last more than one or two years. The people would "see through it" and repeal it, and then the cane and sorghum-growers would be without protection, while the other tariff beneficiaries would be getting their fill as before. The Boston *Advertiser*, on the other hand, thinks that "the greatest good to the greatest number should be the motto," and that therefore the opposition of the planters to the bounty system might properly be disregarded. Touching the duty on refined sugar, the *Advertiser* takes a conservative stand, because the cost of bone black is greater in this country than in Europe, and because the original cost of the sugar-refining plants is also greater. No remarks issue from the *Advertiser*, as yet, on the capitalization of the Sugar Trust and the relation thereof to the "original cost of the plants."

The *Dry Goods Economist* is justly indignant that the Department of Agriculture at Washington should have gone before the Committee of Ways and Means and asked that a duty of a dollar a pound be imposed on raw silk in order to encourage the silk-worm industry in this country. The only producer of raw silk in this country, according to the *Economist*, is the Government itself, through a bureau of the Agricultural Department. All the silk thus produced does not amount to 20,000 pounds annually, and this is produced at a loss. The importation amounts to over 6,000,000 pounds. Putting a tax of $6,000,000 on the silk-manufacturers would, the *Economist* says, kill an established industry in order to put a new one on an uncertain basis. Any man who seriously advances a proposition of that kind is a confirmed harlequin, and ought to be beaten with a stuffed club. There are a good many whose backs call for such treatment just now, as for example the tin-plate men and the alleged growers of carpet wool. But these are private persons looking out for their own interests. The Agricultural Department is supposed to have some sort of care for public interests.

The dispute between the wool-growers and the carpet-manufacturers as to the duties on "wools of the third class" is no nearer settlement than it was when Mr. Whitman and Mr. Delano closed their spicy correspondence last October. On the contrary, the Boston *Journal of Commerce* of December 11 says that "the radical demands of wool-growers, and the pertinacity with which they are adhered to, render agreement upon some plan an impossibility." Further evidence pointing to the same conclusion is found in an article in the *Tribune* of the same date, taking the wool-growers' side of the controversy, and putting the argument on the curious ground that it is *dishonest* to use wools of the third class for any purpose but carpet-making. There is, however, no law in this country, or in any other, we believe, which requires a buyer of wool, or of cows' hair, or of hogs' bristles, to use the same for a particular purpose. The tariff describes the wools in questions as "carpet wools and other similar wools," but if it had described them as carpet wools exclusively, it would still do no violence to the Ten Commandments for a man to make a chair cushion out of such wools, if he found them adapted to that purpose.

The *Tribune* and its correspondent in Brazil are wrestling with these facts, sent by the correspondent:

"The exports to Brazil from the United States have fallen from $9,252,094 in 1883 to $8,127,883 in 1887 and $7,137,008 in 1888, while the imports from that country have exceeded $53,000,000. While England contributes 40 per cent. of the imports received at Rio,

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France 12 per cent., and Germany 9½ per cent., the United States has the fourth place on the list, contenting itself with 7 or 8 per cent. At the same time Americans receive 66 per cent. of the products exported from that port. While England virtually balances its imports from Brazil by furnishing 45 per cent. of the exports to that country, the United States purchases more than one-half of the surplus products, and contributes a comparatively insignificant fraction of the manufactures and foreign supplies."

Our buying from Brazil seven-tenths in value of her surplus articles does not persuade Brazil to buy much from us. There are steamers enough to bring hither that seven-tenths, and would be enough, if called for, to carry thither all Brazil will buy of us. What, then, is in the way of our sales to Brazil? The *Tribune* answers that Brazil seeks "cheap" goods. What will President Harrison think of men and women so deluded as to wish "cheap" goods? The *Tribune* scolds our manufacturers for their stupid obstinacy and indifference. They should compete with more enterprise and vigor. They should establish agencies, and send goods on consignment, which is precisely that which our protectionists complain of European manufacturers for doing to us. But the fact is our manufacturers cannot undersell Europeans in Brazil, and simply because our taxes prevent. It is cold in the mountains of Brazil, which is a country having, if we exclude Alaska, a larger area than ours, and the people require blankets; but we cannot sell blankets in Brazil in competition with England and Scotland. The smart women in Brazilian cities want smart shoes; but how can we undersell Parisians so long as we have to pay a tariff tax of 60 per cent. on the silk trimmings? Brazilians are large buyers of perfumery; but how can we compete with European sellers so long as our perfumery-makers are taxed 300 per cent. on alcohol, 45 per cent. on glass bottles, 30 per cent. on the stoppers, and 20 per cent. on the paper wrappers? For similar reasons we do not and cannot export to any country articles which, in the language of trade, are really manufactured articles, displaying the skill and labor of our artisans and weavers, and the perfection with which they can manipulate cotton, silk, flax, wool, wood, leather, iron, and steel.

It is quite true, as the Trenton *State Gazette* says, that the opposition to the Blair bill in the South is prompted in part by the fact that it involves "an assumption of 'paternal' functions by the general Government, and an invasion of the sovereignty and independence of the States." But it is a great mistake to suppose, as the *Gazette* in its ignorance apparently does, that the opposition to the measure on this ground is confined to Southern Democrats. On the contrary, it is fully shared by leading Republican Senators from the North. Mr. Hawley of Connecticut, for example, has said on this point: "This bill is a bill drawing into Federal control an interest that from the settlement of the continent to this day has been under local control, and wisely so. It would be the beginning of a permanent policy, a permanent new relation between the Federal Government and the States, and it would never go backward; it would never diminish its action." Mr. Plumb of Kansas was even more emphatic. "I see in it," he said, "the most dangerous endeavor I have ever witnessed to extend the power of the Federal Government at the expense not only of the State governments, but of every form of government within them." In the same tone said Mr. Hale of Maine: "All experience shows that in any field occupied jointly by the Federal and State Governments the absorption and aggression are in one direction. The Federal interest increases, and the Federal control increases, and it is the State interest that yields and grows indifferent and slothful." Republican newspapers have been equally outspoken on this point—the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, for instance. We are persuaded that, if the *Gazette* will make a careful study of this question, it will be constrained to agree with the conclusion of the *Pioneer Press* that "the Blair bill is bad, in principle and practice, from the ground all the way up." Reports from Washington indicate that there is a growing disposition among Republican Senators and Representatives to follow the advice of the *Pioneer Press*, "Let every patriotic man in Congress speak and vote against it"; and that opposition to the scheme is also increasing among the Democrats, so that it is threatened with deserved defeat.

The suggestion that President Harrison might well appoint a Democrat to some future vacancy on the Supreme Bench, in view of the fact that only two of the present nine judges are members of that party, strikes the Albany *Evening Journal* as the height of absurdity. It says of it: "May the sound American idea of party power and party responsibility never be lost sight of, and may civil-service nonsense never so completely delude the American people that the party voted into power shall be deprived of the legitimate fruits of its victory. The demoralization that would result would be a disaster to the public. 'Non-partisan politics' is a day-dream of the Mugwump—the ideal of the millennium, when peace, good-will, and free-trade will exist throughout the world. Put none but Republicans on guard!" All this betrays most extraordinary ignorance as to the decisions actually made by the Republicans who have been appointed judges of the Supreme Court. The most important ones have been decisions annulling acts passed by Republican Senators and Representatives, on the ground that these acts were unconstitutional. The truth is, that it makes very little difference whether Presidents "put none but Republicans on guard" in the Supreme Court so long as these Republicans render decisions which command the heartiest approval of Democrats. The argument for appointing a Democrat is not that he would take any different view of the Constitution from Justice Miller and the other Republican judges, but that, in a country where the voters are divided almost evenly between the two parties, it seems hardly fair that one of those parties should have only two representatives out of the nine men on the Supreme Bench.

As for the argument that "such a thing did not happen in Cleveland's time," it is of course absurd. The Federal judiciary being almost entirely composed of Republicans when Mr. Cleveland became President, he was not called upon to appoint Republicans to fill vacancies in order to equalize such honors between the two parties. A Republican President might well follow the example set in this matter by the Republicans of New England. Although that party has controlled Vermont without interruption ever since its formation, and Massachusetts and Maine with only slight breaks, the majority have recognized the justice and wisdom of allowing the minority a representation in the courts, and Democrats have been given judgeships of the highest courts in those States at times when none but Republicans need have been put on guard. There is no doubt that this practice has conduced to popular respect for these tribunals in New England, and what is true of New England would hold true of the whole country. The first essential to a judicial tribunal is that it shall command the respect of the people without distinction of party, and a representation of both parties is the surest way to command such respect.

A fresh attempt is about to be made to induce Congress to authorize an increase of the salaries of Federal judges in this State, and we sincerely hope that it will succeed. Similar efforts have been made in every Congress for many years, but, for some inscrutable reason, have resulted in nothing. Nobody can claim that the salaries paid at present are anything like what they should be. As a matter of fact they are not sufficient to enable the recipients of them to live respectably. A United States District Court judge receives only $4,000 a year, and a Circuit judge receives only $6,000, from which he must pay his own travelling expenses and private clerk hire. The absurd inadequacy of these salaries is more than ever apparent when we compare them with those paid to New York State and city judges. Our Supreme Court judges receive $17,500, those of the Superior and Common Pleas Courts $15,000. We even pay our police justices, scarcely one of whom is a lawyer by profession, $8,000, and our civil justices $6,000. When Mr. Lacombe, who was one of the ablest Corporation Counsels this city has ever had, resigned from that office to accept an appointment as Federal Circuit Judge, he gave up a salary of $12,000 to receive one of $6,000. This is a sacrifice which men of legal and judicial talent ought not to be asked by the Government to make, and it is one which few of them can or will consent to make. The inevitable result is, therefore, that the Government cannot, except in rare instances, command the services of the very men whom it is most desirable to have upon the Supreme Bench. Present salaries ought at least to be doubled, and this Congress ought to authorize the increase without hesitation or delay.

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RICH MEN IN THE SENATE.

Mr. Calvin S. Brice has been elected to the Senate from Ohio, with doubts hanging over his qualification as an "inhabitant," and with no equipment worth mention in the matter of political experience, and, in fact, without any generally recognized equipment except great wealth. This is sure to bring up once more, between now and his taking his seat, the much-bruited question of the gradual occupation of the Senate by men noted only for their riches. On this point the founders seem to have eased their minds by forbearing to exact a property qualification. Story refers to it in the following curious passage:

> "In concluding this topic, it is proper to remark that no qualification whatever, as to property, is required in regard to Senators, any more than in regard to Representatives. Merit and talent have, therefore, the freest access open to them into each branch of the Legislature. Under such circumstances, if the choice of the people is but directed by a suitable sobriety of judgment, the Senate cannot fail of being distinguished for wisdom, for learning, for exalted patriotism, for incorruptible integrity, and for inflexible independence."

Story's belief evidently was, and he doubtless shared it with most of the political philosophers both of his own generation and that immediately preceding it, that if the people were relieved from the legal necessity of choosing rich men for the high offices of State, they would inevitably choose men of "merit and talent." By merit and talent he plainly meant merit and talent displayed in other ways than in the accumulation of wealth. What we know of the social and political conditions of those days warrants us in supposing that he thought persons distinguished for their oratory, or their legal knowledge, or their capacity as legislators or administrators would be sure to command the popular choice in preference to men distinguished only for the amount of property they possessed. And he was certainly right in his conclusion as to his own time. Where he erred was, in supposing that he was laying down a rule of general application and indefinite duration. Eminence qualifying a man for high office in the popular eye varies from age to age with social or economical conditions. Between the establishment of the Government and the outbreak of the civil war the process of making a fortune was a slow one, and the fortune when made was never very large. It was made, too, for the most part, on the old Poor Richard lines—that is, by industry combined with strict economy. There were but few chances of lucky speculation. Moreover, even large fortunes were spent without splendor or display. Manners were simple, and the means of ostentation, even for the ostentatiously disposed, were scanty.

Under these conditions, intellectual eminence of some kind was almost the only eminence known. The minister, the judge, the successful lawyer, the college president, professors, and authors, were the great men of the day, and their greatness the only kind of greatness that seemed possible to the popular mind, except that of the successful naval or military commander. The rich man, noted for nothing but his riches, was not thought of as a great man at all, because riches were hardly ever the result of any remarkable mental exertion. Those, therefore, were the golden days of the orator and lecturer and editor and the literary man. They filled the popular imagination. The orator had a better chance of the Senate than anybody, and walked about with a following of admirers such as have waited on greatness in no other country since the Roman patricians led their clients on fine mornings down to the Forum. The Senate between 1800 and 1860 was pretty sure to contain whatever eminence of this sort each State possessed.

All this has been changed, mainly, though not wholly, because our economic conditions have changed. The clergy have lost their eminence, owing to the weakening of theological beliefs and the consequent loosening of the bonds of church organization. The judges have lost a good deal of their influence under the operation of the elective system, and the bar has suffered in dignity and consequence through the diminished authority of the bench. The writers and orators held their own fairly, owing to the support they received from the great moral enthusiasm of the anti-slavery struggle. But the war brought into sudden overwhelming importance the military men, or men of action, and correspondingly depressed the "book-men" and "littery fellers." For ten years after Appomattox, military eminence was the only eminence that counted for much either in politics or society. The soldiers came home, and married the pretty women, and got nominated for anything they took a fancy to. They got the Presidency, and a considerable share of the House and Senate, and of the Governorships and Lieutenant-Governorships, and in fact were literally "cocks of the walk." But their day began to pass when the great speculators, the oil, coal, iron, and railroad men, began to appear on the scene under the influence of the immense premiums offered to money-making talent by the debased currency, the high tariff, and the opening of the great West by the new lines of railroad. The talent of the country then began to be turned into the money-making field, which offered for the first time materials for combinations that might task anybody's intellectual powers, and returned in a few years fortunes such as the world has not seen since the Roman procurators came home laden with the plunder of the provinces.

Under these circumstances, rich men having become the popular heroes, it is not surprising that they get the honors and rewards which in Story's day were reserved, and he thought would be reserved for ever, for a different kind of merit. Every generation has its own sign of worldly success, and bestows its trusts on the men who can show it, and infers from their possession of it all the more useful virtues. The misfortune is that wealth is an unusually untrustworthy sign, and can only be relied upon in about half the cases. It is an eminence which, though often the reward of character and capacity, is often won without either. But this, too, shall pass, as the poet says. There is sure to be a reaction against it, as against all titles to fame which will not bear strict examination. In politics, as in business, moth and rust do corrupt, and thieves break through and steal. It will give place in its turn to something more enduring, when the present great opportunities for acquiring it have diminished.

HISTORY OF THE SIX-MILLION-DOLLAR CASE.

If Congress had not thrown down the reins and surrendered itself to be whirled whithersoever the tariff beneficiaries wish to go, it would order a serious investigation into the origin and history of the tax gathering which the Supreme Court has recently condemned, for a second time, as unauthorized, arbitrary, and lawless in the case of hat-bands and bonnet-trimmings. Fifty per cent. ad valorem was the monstrous and indefensible exaction levied, by a sort of lynch law, upon the women of the country. The magnitude of the annual exaction can be inferred from the estimate that the refund to a very few importers who protested and sued will reach $6,000,000. How could there have been such executive blundering in the beginning, and such obstinate adherence to the blunder after so many warnings by the courts? What personal motive allured or pushed on Treasury officials to enforce this illegal tax?

On February 27, 1884, the Arthur-Folger Administration, on the advice of Attorney-General Brewster, decided the rate on bonnet-trimmings to be as the Supreme Court has just now decided. Somehow or other the question went to the Supreme Court, and it sustained Secretary Folger, who was a wise and competent lawyer. The Treasury, under Mr. Fairchild, instead of sending to the customs officers the *text* of the Supreme Court decision, sent a misleading summary on April 25, 1888. On May 31, 1888, Collector Magone had the rate on the article in question before him, and he directed that 20 per cent. be levied, as the Supreme Court had decreed. Appraiser McMullen did not indicate a rate. Naval-Officer Burt refused to liquidate the entry at that rate, because the Treasury instructions of April 25, 1888, in his opinion, required 50 per cent. The disagreement accordingly went to the Department at Washington. On May 15 Mr. Maynard, Assistant Secretary, wrote to Collector Magone, saying that it had been represented to the Department, "at a personal interview by Mr. Cheney and other silk-manufacturers," that some doubts existed in the minds of appraising officers at the port of New York "as to the scope of the Department's instructions of the 25th ult., addressed to the Collector of Philadelphia for the purpose of carrying out the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of Hartranft vs. Langfeldt." In order to establish uniformity in classification of such goods at the several ports, Mr. Maynard directed that the general principles as laid down in the instructions be examined by the Conference of Ap-

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praisers. The Conference reported on July 26, and, acting upon their report, the Department decided against Collector Magone's 20 per cent. and in favor of Naval-Officer Burt's 50 per cent. rate.

On August 28 a New York manufacturer, Mr. Curtiss, complained to the Treasury that 50 per cent. was levied at New York and only 20 per cent. at Philadelphia, adding that the difference "involves our *existence*," to which Mr. Maynard replied that orders had been given which would restore uniformity. Those orders put up Philadelphia to 50 per cent., as the New York Appraising Board advised. That was on August 31, in the midst of a Presidential campaign on an issue made by the Democratic party for lower duties.

In the next month but one thereafter the suit of Wanamaker (the present Postmaster-General) vs. Cadwalader was brought to trial before Judge McKennan and a jury. It presented the very same question of 20 or 50 per cent. rate. The importer produced and examined forty witnesses and the Collector twenty, and a judgment was entered against the Treasury. The District Attorney, who was beaten, advised the Department that the court was all wrong in its law, and, without taking the advice of the Attorney-General, the suit was appealed by the Treasury Department to the Supreme Court, and the 50 per cent. exaction continued.

On October 5 Mr. Maynard applied to the President of the Silk Association of America for his advice "as to what steps should be taken by the Government in the premises"; and the latter repaired to Washington. Ten days afterwards the Department wrote to District-Attorney Walker of New York that it had been told that witnesses could be had in that city to prove that 50 per cent. was the true rate, and asking if another suit could be tried there at an early day. On October 17, 1888, the District Attorney said that there were a lot of such suits on the calendar, but he added:

> "The case of Edelhoff vs. Robertson, No. 9063, tried in this district in April, 1886, is now pending on appeal in the United States Supreme Court. This case involve the proper construction of T. I. 448, Schedule N."

That is the suit just decided by the Supreme Court.

On November 7, 1888, Collector Magone wrote to the Department for more definite orders as to whether the rate should be 20 or 50, saying he had levied 50, but adding:

> "If you affirm our action, we will assess duty at 50 per cent. ad valorem. If, on the contrary, you feel compromised, *either by the decisions of the courts* or previous action of the Department, or differ from us as to the construction of paragraph 448, then we will assess duty as you may advise."

On November 13 the Department did not object to 50 per cent., and said:

> "In this connection it may be mentioned that the United States Attorney at your port has been requested to prepare for trial, and to try at the first favorable opportunity, a suit which may involve a full consideration of the questions now pending, as to the proper classification of so-called hat-bands and other similar merchandise; and also that the U. S. Attorney at Philadelphia has been requested to take the necessary steps for having the case of Wanamaker vs. Cadwalader, recently tried at that port, concerning the classification of fancy ribbons, taken to the United States Supreme Court for review."

Two days afterwards the Treasury again appealed to the President of the Silk Association of America for advice, and on December 17 Collector Magone begged Assistant-Secretary Maynard to come to New York and help the Custom-house out of the worries into which it had been plunged by the hat-band and bonnet-trimming business. The importers said they had sold goods to arrive on the basis of 20 per cent., and by reason of the recent 50 per cent. decision they were in deep distress. The Treasury decided at first that goods *ordered* prior to the order increasing the tax to 50 per cent. be admitted at 20 per cent., and those ordered afterwards must pay 50. That made such a confusion and rumpus that finally the Treasury Department ordered, on December 20, 1888, that the bonnet-trimmings and hat-bands arriving before January 1, 1889, could be admitted at 20 per cent., but all after that date must pay 50 per cent. If that is not increasing customs taxes by an executive order, what is it?

We have been at the trouble to gather the foregoing facts and dates in order to convince the most sceptical what sort of a taxing system it is under which they live. The recent decision of the Supreme Court puts the illegality of the 50 per cent. exaction beyond question or cavil.

CANADIAN RAILROAD COMPETITION.

Mr. Erastus Wiman, before the Senate Committee on Canadian Relations, said recently that he was authorized to state that Canada would be willing to conform its railroad system to the principles of our Inter-State Commerce Law if necessary to continue its carriage of American products. Details were not given, but presumably Mr. Wiman referred principally to the long-and-short haul provision of our law. It is generally believed that the Canadian Pacific, on its long lines, charges its local shippers more than it receives from American transit trade. The value of the American carrying-trade to the Canadian Pacific must increase in the future, and our roads may as well prepare themselves for a yet stronger competition from Canadian lines. The logic of the situation is driving the Canadian Pacific more and more to seek American trade. A part of its present advantages, both of Government guarantee of dividends and of monopoly, must shortly come to an end. Besides this, the reputation of its managers is at stake. The Canadian people have invested a great many millions in this railroad. If in a few years the road does not show a substantial business, its managers will have to meet a dissatisfied people. Where will this growth of traffic come from? Not from Canada, because there is not enough business there to make the good showing required. It is known that Government and railroad are much disappointed over the failure to settle large numbers of immigrants in the Northwestern provinces, as expected. Whatever the reason may be, the fact is true that it is the United States, and not Canada, which is showing the great increase in volume of trade. To the American transit trade, therefore, the Canadian Pacific must turn if it would show a business large enough to justify the expectations of its projectors and creditors.

If political union or annexation were to be looked for soon, the solution of the larger problem would solve the transportation question also; but that prospect seems very remote. Meanwhile our American railroads think themselves unjustly treated wherever they find themselves paying higher prices for supplies or wages, while at the same time limited as to rates by the competition of their Canadian rivals. Certainly our lines should be freed from the restrictions of the Inter-State Law whenever subject to such Canadian competition. This would not need additional legislation, but only an expression of opinion on the part of Congress and the people that Canadian competition constitutes such dissimilar circumstances and conditions as are mentioned as sufficient excuses in the law itself.

One of the ramifications of this Canadian transportation question is shown by the recent complaint of the Board of Trade and Transportation of this city, and the reply of the Pennsylvania Railroad just made. This complaint in brief is, that railroads charge regular tariff rates on merchandise shipped from New York, while accepting a less sum as a proportion of a through rate, say, from Liverpool to Chicago. Doubtless this has proved a serious matter for New York merchants in certain branches of trade, more serious than the small percentage of imports credited to Western cities as ports of entry would indicate; one reason being that such direct imports (at a less through rate) fix the prices and profits at which all sales must be made. The reply of the Pennsylvania is, that such through combined ocean and land rates are made in competition with similar routes through Canada. In the export case last summer the Inter-State Commission decided that the railroads must charge the same sum to the seaboard whether the grain was for export or for domestic consumption. Logically, the Commission is bound, therefore, to declare the same rule in the present complaint. If the view is the correct one that, in the nature of things, Canadian competition must increase, we may shortly find that we have really legislated in favor of the export and import trade of Canadian ports. Montreal, and perhaps Quebec, with the ports further east, would be glad to be thus assisted. On the other hand, it would be unjust to ask our American carriers to accept on all their traffic the rates fixed on part of the same by Canadian through water and rail lines. It is a difficult question at the best, and the Inter-State Commerce Commission in its late annual report was glad to put the whole matter upon Congress without recommendation.

One way of escape from this export and import perplexity has not been tried, though, if practicable, it would be in line with the theory of exemption of our carriers from the Inter-State Law under Canadian competition. That plan is one of rebates under

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careful restrictions; that American carriers, in the Board of Trade and Transportation case, should be allowed to quote the same through-rate to Chicago via New York as via Montreal; that when a shipment was made from New York of a quantity of an article proved by custom-house papers to have been previously imported, a rebate equalizing the through European rate should be paid. This is the plan now pursued at Boston on exports, which works well. New York would present more complications, and, besides this, severe fluctuations of the through-rate would be a serious difficulty in adjusting such a rebate. Possibly the control of ocean steamships by railroads would tend towards steadiness of rates, and in general favor the settlement of our export and import transportation questions. Any plan must have in view two things: the ever present low-rate quotations to and from our interior cities and Europe via Canadian carriers and Canadian ports, and next, the right of the American seaboard merchants to continue sharing in our import and export trade.

THE ANGLO-PORTUGUESE TROUBLE.

THE difficulty between Portugal and Great Britain which Lord Salisbury has so summarily terminated, began by the publication, in the Lisbon *Official Gazette* on the 9th of November last, of a royal decree placing under Portuguese administration a vast territory in the interior of Africa, both north and south of the Zambesi, to which the Portuguese Government gave the name of Zumbo. It embraced on one side a large part of Mashonaland, and to the north an immense region close to the frontier of the Congo Free State, and to the dividing line of Lake Nyassa. Lord Salisbury thereupon called the attention of the Portuguese Minister to the fact that Mashonaland was already a British dependency, and that Portuguese pretensions to any part of it could not be allowed; that the convention between Lobengula, King of Mashonaland and Makalakaland and Great Britain, concluded on the 11th of February, 1888, had been duly communicated to Portugal and published in Cape Colony.

He added that the British Government could not recognize Portuguese pretensions to the country north of the Zambesi; that the territory there claimed by Portugal lay along the river Loangwa, with the tribes on both sides of which the British Government had concluded treaties, and that the Portuguese pretensions in that region were incompatible with British rights resulting from the creation of English settlements on the River Shiré and the banks of Lake Nyassa. Besides this, Portugal had pretended to establish jurisdiction over vast unoccupied territories principally discovered by English explorers. Lord Salisbury reminded M. Barros Gomès that in August, 1887, he had by formal note warned the Portuguese Government that no claim of sovereignty or jurisdiction not supported by occupation or effective military possession would be submitted to.

After the receipt of this note—that is, on the 16th of December—came news from Mashonaland of the 8th of August, from M. Alvaro Castellões, who was making surveys for a railroad in Mashonaland. His story was, in brief, that the natives of various tribes had driven off his surveying parties, and had finally compelled him, after some severe fighting, to fortify himself and await the reinforcements from Maj. Serpa Pinto, the commander of the military escort, and that these attacks had been instigated and directed by two Englishmen, brothers, named Petit. Almost immediately after this, came a telegram dated November 17 from Mashonaland, announcing the arrival on the scene of Maj. Serpa Pinto, with Gatling guns, with the aid of which he defeated and drove off the native forces with great slaughter, and forthwith became the hero of the hour at Lisbon. In the midst of the enthusiasm came Lord Salisbury's cool and crushing ultimatum. It compelled Gomès's resignation and a complete surrender, but the mob got some satisfaction by breaking the windows of the British Embassy at Lisbon.

The truth is, that Portugal, after having been the first Power to explore or make any considerable settlements in Africa, has made no progress there in two centuries, has exerted no influence on the civilization of the continent, has been cruel in her treatment of the natives, and is accused, whether rightly or wrongly, of conniving at the slave trade and obstructing the efforts of other nations to abolish it. It is not surprising that her pride should have been wounded and her old ambition roused by seeing the inroads into the African wilderness made by England and Germany, but, considering that her population is small, stationary, and unenterprising, her financial situation wretched, the position of the monarchy precarious, the army small and of very poor quality, and her navy hardly worthy of the name, her entrance on the scene as a competing colonizer and conqueror must be pronounced an egregious piece of folly. The prompt check given to it by Lord Salisbury must undoubtedly be considered a blessing in disguise.

THE EUROPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

PARIS, December 26, 1889.

THE preparations for war have never been greater than they are now all over Europe; even the neutral Powers have been roused from a long inertia, and are transforming their armaments, building fortifications, reorganizing their armies. Belgium covers the line of the Meuse with forts; Switzerland is building immense arsenals and new military roads. France has made a new military law: instead of keeping in the service all men from twenty to forty, she keeps now all men from twenty to forty-five, thus adding five generations to twenty and augmenting the number of fighting men by one-fifth. Besides, the institution of the one-year volunteers (copied from the German *einjährige*) has been abolished: all the young men are obliged to spend the same amount of time in the active army, whether they are educated or not, rich or poor; whether they intend to follow a liberal career or to become common laborers. Even the ecclesiastics have not been exempted: the seminarists will go to the barracks. This last article has been the great *cheval de bataille* of our modern republicans, who still repeat, with Gambetta, "Clericalism is the enemy," and who never lose an opportunity to show their hostility to the religious body.

Our armies will be enormous *on paper;* in time of war the whole nation will be in arms. We now read articles in the military papers in which there is, for instance, discussion of a cavalry corps of 60,000 men placed under the independent command of a single general. Imagine 60,000 horsemen invading a province! I was reading some time ago a letter from Turenne to Mazarin. He had at the time a little army of 12,000 men under his orders, and he complained that his horses could find nothing to eat—they were so weak that they had not the strength to go to water. Future armies will be like the plagues of Egypt: the difficulty will be to feed these millions of men. The vision of the horrors of future wars has a calming effect on the imagination, and I can not remember the time when French chauvinism was so subdued. Though the belief in war is in all minds, the time is left vague. "Après moi le déluge," as Louis XV. once said.

If the ideas dormant in every mind could find an expression, it would be this: We shall not begin war; to which must be added: If Russia and Germany should go to war, we could not help joining Russia and taking our opportunity. The same thing is probably thought in Russia; the solitary will of the Emperor is also waiting for some external cause of action. Personally, the Emperor is pacific; he is said to have a great horror of war. He knows that his country did not gain much by the last Eastern war, the siege of Plevna and the march on Constantinople. But could he remain neutral if France and Germany were again belligerent? Could he allow the political annihilation of France? He has been urged, over and over again, to join the Triple Alliance—he has probably been tempted in a thousand ways; but his people could find no compensation for the predominance of the German element in Europe—a hegemony which would destroy for ever the political equilibrium of the Continent.

In order to obey the aspirations of his country and to preserve the existing equilibrium of forces, the Emperor of Russia has adopted a passive attitude. His sullenness for a moment appeared to verge on hostility. The young Emperor of Germany, as soon as he ascended the throne, made it his duty to pay a visit to Russia. It was the first of the series which he thought it necessary to make to his brother sovereigns. The visit of the Emperor of Russia was returned very late, so late that great anxiety was felt in Germany and all over Europe. When at last it took place, the anxiety was, it may be said, intense. What was going to happen in the interview? Its external features were noted with the greatest care; but these features are almost invariably the same. Exchanges of uniforms do not mean exchanges of ideas. There was no witness to the most important conversation which took place—the long conversation between the Emperor of Russia and the Chancellor of Germany. But the diplomatic correspondence which ensued has allowed us to form some idea of the exchange of views which took place on that occasion.

Prince Bismarck had no easy task. The Russian press had been constantly denouncing him as the enemy of Russia; he was obliged to prove, by official documents, that in every important circumstance his instructions to his agents had been inspired, with regard to Rus-

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sia, by the most friendly sentiments. His enemies had not hesitated, in order to influence the mind of the Czar, to use once more documents which were wanting in authenticity. His exposition of his diplomacy is said to have been listened to in silence, and, at the end of it, the Emperor thanked the Chancellor for it, and told him that he was glad to receive the assurances which were made to him; at the same time, if the German Empire entertained nothing but friendly sentiments towards Russia, their way (a very simple way) to prove it was not to give any support to the order of things existing in Bulgaria, which was contrary to the letter of the Treaty of Berlin. It is easy to imagine that, on these terms, the conversation could not be carried very far; the Emperor of Russia, however, declared that he would not oppose by force the irregular order of things now existing in Bulgaria; that he would content himself with not recognizing it.

Before the interview took place there had been some talk of this recognition by Italy, by Austria afterwards, and even by the Porte. Many articles had been thrown out as feelers in this direction. The Chancellor of Germany was not long in understanding that any partial recognition would be useless, as the Treaty of Berlin requires unanimity in this case; he understood also that if Russia refused her recognition, France would do the same, as these two Powers, by a sort of tacit agreement, combine their action in every important measure. The signatures of Prussia, of Italy, of Austria on one side, with perhaps those of England and the Porte a little time afterwards, and on the other side the protests of Russia and of France, would have given too vivid a form to the constellation of political forces, to use a current German expression. What is useless in politics is generally not only useless, but dangerous. It was therefore determined that things should remain *ad infinitum* in the present state; the Bulgarian Government will no more be recognized by its friends than by its enemies; it will remain in Europe as a permanent danger to peace.

However, so long as a danger is not imminent, it seems less formidable. Bulgaria will have to count on time, on the unforeseen incidents of political life; if she is wise, she will take good care of her finances. If she organizes her army, especially if she builds railways and becomes an important line of communication between Austria-Hungary and the East, she will some day reap the benefit of her patience. The present King of Rumania was for a long time unacknowledged, and he seems now tolerably firm on his throne. Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that the whole Eastern question may be reopened at any moment, that the little nationalities which have sprung up in various parts of the Ottoman Empire do not seem to have in themselves great elements of independent vitality. Russia is longing for Constantinople, and we can hardly imagine her, in Constantinople, surrounded by a host of small sovereigns and small nationalities. The orthodox Czar will always be tempted to rule over all the orthodox Christians of the East. The difficulties and complications of the Eastern question are numberless; and the Eastern question cannot be reopened without endangering the peace of the world. The smallest spark may set fire to the combustible materials which for the last twenty years have been accumulating in Europe.

We can, therefore, say with reason: "They cry, Peace, peace, but there is no peace." The philanthropic effusions of the Exhibition of 1889 in Paris must not deceive us; we may build higher and higher towers, larger and larger halls; humanity remains fundamentally the same. It is a very materialistic view to believe that because men are better clothed, and warmed, and lighted, they are really better. The moral work of humanity is not comparable to its physical work. We are too often deceived by words. The Republic which has been proclaimed in a moment of stupor at Rio Janeiro, will, I am afraid, have little in common with the Republic which was organized a hundred years ago by the founders of the American Constitution, and it is but a narrow view of politics to divide all the governments of the world, as Montesquieu did in his 'Esprit des Lois,' into three categories. The German Empire of the North of Germany does not much resemble the German Empire of the South, and much less the Russian Empire. Constitutional government as carried on at Bucharest or at Sofia has little in common with the same government as it is understood in London or in Brussels. The present French Republic is a republic *sui generis*, and, even now that Gen. Boulanger is living an obscure life in one of the Channel Islands, can we forget that less than a year ago he was the idol of Paris, which elected him its representative by the largest vote ever obtained in this capital? Can we forget that, two years ago, he was the favorite of the men who are now in power, and their Minister of War?

Without being too much of a "laudator temporis acti," I may perhaps be allowed to say that our time suffers from the absence of any great ruling principles. Everything seems uncertain; there is not a country in Europe—and I will not even except England—where you can be thoroughly tranquil about the future. The great wars initiated by the Second Empire, after long years of peace and quiet, produced a perturbation which is not yet ended. We all feel instinctively that Europe has not found a real state of equilibrium. This uncertainty produces an uneasiness which is felt in all the relations of life. We live from day to day, and dare not look too much into the future.

THE POPE AND IRELAND.

ROME, December 17, 1889.

IT is curious to see how long the newspapers have kept up the superstition of the pressure of the English Government on the Pope to induce him to "pacify Ireland." The English Government has no channel of official communication with the Vatican, and has had none since the Jubilee mission of the Duke of Norfolk; and I know from the lips of his Grace that he had never any negotiations on the subject of Ireland with anybody at the Vatican, that political topics were never discussed in his interviews either with the Pope or the Secretary of State. With the cessation of his mission ceased all official intercourse between the Pope and the English Government, only to be renewed with the coming, a few weeks ago, of the mission of Gen. Sir John Linthorn Simmons to arrange the relations of ecclesiastical and civil affairs in the island of Malta. This Ambassador Extraordinary is a soldier, former Governor of Malta, and I have his personal assurance that his mission has no relation to any part of the English dominions except that island. Between these two there has been no attempt to carry on diplomatic intercourse between the English Government and the Vatican.

This statement is as positive as anything which can be said in opposition to it, because the presence of any person for the purpose of such intercourse in Rome could not escape the habitual observers of affairs which are watched with so much jealousy, nor could the negotiations long escape discovery. Being in more or less familiar intercourse with leading and influential Catholics resident in Rome as well as English Catholics temporarily here, I am able to assert, with a positiveness which does not fear denial, that the English Government has never in a direct or an indirect manner applied any pressure or urgency, officially or officiously, at the Vatican to induce the Pope to "pacify Ireland." If men had not their minds heated by partisan excitement so as to be unable to see clearly, they would understand that the English Government, being a Protestant Government, besides being dependent on public opinion for existence, could not permit the Pope to interpose his authority between itself and the subjects of the Queen without incurring a danger greater than it has now to meet. Nothing in the entire history of England is clearer than that, since the day of Henry VIII., every ruler of the kingdom has repected, *bon gré mal gré*, the jealousy of the English people of any foreign intervention in the affairs of the country, and that to-day the Pope, were he ever so much disposed, would not be permitted to mediate between the Government and what it regards in the light of domestic insurrection. I am convinced that any person competent to judge the position will agree with me that this is certain. There is not a Conservative in England, unless he be more Catholic than Englishman, who would not abandon a Government guilty of such a weakness.

And the facts of the case accord with this à priori view of it. Not only has the Government never desired the intervention of the Pope to "pacify" Ireland, but the Pope has never proposed to take any action which was open to the implication of meddling in Irish politics. It is my opinion that if the Irish people had risen in insurrection, or if they had proposed to rise, the Pope would have limited his action to advice to keep the peace, and this would have been in accordance with his general feeling and advice. But no rescript would or could have been issued, because the act of rebellion, as such, is a political act, and could not have been condemned as immoral by the Church, as boycotting and the plan of campaign were. This judgment, moreover, was not the act of the Pope, but of the College of Cardinals, composed in a large majority of Italians who have no sympathy with the interests of England or English landlords. The practical revolt against English law was not condemned, but the means by which this revolt was carried on, viz., boycotting, which is an act of excommunication, a prerogative which the Church reserves to itself, as well as judging of the conduct which justifies it; and the plan of campaign, which was a combination intended to interfere with the rights of property and the observance of contracts.

I am not going to enter into a discussion of Irish affairs on their merits—I am only stating facts of history. In the discussion of the nature of the disturbances in Ireland which made this rescript necessary, the English Government had no part; nor did it present, directly or indirectly, any case, which is indeed implied in my saying that it did not recognize the political character of the Pope. The Roman ecclesiastics have never taken a leading interest in the Irish affair. The English Government had nothing to offer the Pope or the Church, and the Church had nothing to ask of England. In the time when the matter was under consideration here I asked a leading cardinal what the Church wanted which England could give, and he replied, "Nothing." There was, and always is, a desire for some

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method of official communication with the English Government on account of occasional irregularities in Catholic provinces under English rule, and even because the idea of being treated with as an independent sovereign has always been dear to the heart of the Pope; but this is recognized as at present impracticable, though the leading English statesmen of both parties, with the exception of Mr. Gladstone, are in favor of it. The Church has, therefore, no interest in the political side of the Irish question, or, if it have any, it would be due to the Irish ecclesiastics, who are mostly in favor of home rule. Their influence was, in fact, the strongest at work in Rome. The people who worked against them were not the English Ambassador or the Jubilee Embassy, but English Catholics and Irish Catholics who are loyal to the Government and suffering from the state of things in Ireland. These were the "emissaries" of the English Government, as Archbishop Walsh and his coadjutors were of the Home-Rulers.

To clear up the doubts of the authorities of the Church, called on to judge in such a conflict of interests, the Pope sent Monsignor Persico to examine on the spot all the elements of the problem. He heard everybody interested, and his report, made by letter and continuous, not embodied in an ecclesiastical blue-book, settled the question; and the decision of the College of Cardinals, registered among the immutable decisions of the Church, was the end of the discussion. Save certain letters or amplifications of the rescript, this ended the Pope's interference in the matter, and there has been no change in the attitude either of his Holiness or of the College of Cardinals since. The bishops and the priests have been left to their own consciences, and those who conform to the rescript, as those who do not, act on their own responsibility; the former respecting and the latter defying the decision of the authority they accept as infallible.

It is true that there is, in quarters where the Italian prelates are not regarded with favor, a certain impatience with the dominant influence they exert in Vatican matters; but so long as the Pope is Pope by force of his succession to St. Peter as Bishop of Rome, it is difficult to see how the affair can be otherwise arranged. The Church over which he is head is the most conservative of all human institutions, and this is the source of its greatest power over the minds of its adherents. The jealousy of the clergy of other countries is based on the belief that the influence of the Vatican is exerted with too little regard for other nations than the Italian, and is strengthened by the hope of getting a larger part of that influence. But what has nationality to do with this matter? The instant that the Church becomes national it ceases to be universal, and the immediate consequence would be that schisms would begin to appear. In Italy the Church is not under the control or influence of the State, but, on the contrary, in confirmed hostility to it. So far as the jealousies of the Catholics of other countries are concerned, this is a safe position for it to be in. In France there is no doubt that it would be under the influence of the clergy of that country, which would be, so far as the other Powers are concerned, a much more serious trouble. The "spirit of insubordination towards the Papacy on the part of the non-Italian element in the clergy" has nothing to do with Irish matters, nor is there any appearance of its "growing more rapidly of late," except among the Irish home-rule clergy. On the contrary, the zeal and devotion of the Catholics of all Europe have shown within the last year or two a very great intensification. The political prelates of all nations desire to pocket the Church if possible, and the Italian hereditary guardians to keep it. The latter have long, perhaps always, kept the foreign prelates aloof, and it is not more with regard to the Irish than the English that this is true. I remember hearing a Scotch prelate, who stands very high in the esteem of the Pope, say one day that the Italian cardinals did not allow the English prelates to know much of what was going on at the Vatican, and this was precisely in relation to the Irish question, then at its crisis.

The Italian prelates seem to regard themselves as a kind of Levites, whose special virtue and function is to keep the Church from the "liberalization of Catholic theology," because they feel, and very justly, that the liberalization means dissolution in a greater or lesser mode. So far as an outsider can judge, the sound churchmen prefer the risks of apostasy and diminution of the numbers of the faithful to the weakening of the authority of the Church. The Church must maintain its principles beyond the matters of dogma, which, as all the world knows, are settled once for all. There are certain principles of social organization which the Church must uphold with all its authority short of a dogmatic declaration. The Church has the entire Catholic world to think of, and the precedents sought to be established by the Land League would hold equally in Italy, in Germany, Austria, and wherever landlords have tenants.

Out of Rome the greater part of the world seems to think that the Pope settles the questions brought before him in much the same manner that the Czar of Russia follows, and that the decisions he announces are the outcome of his individual cogitations; while the fact is that in no constitutional government now existing is there such profound and prolonged study of the questions to be answered; and, so far from any problem being solved by the opinions of one, however important, ecclesiastic, it employs the united thought and application of the Sacred College in its solution. There is not probably in the entire world another such case of grave and multiplex deliberation on moral questions; and the most solemn form of it was that in which the questions of boycotting and the plan of campaign were answered. The Irish bishops were here to urge all the considerations on their side; they were aided by all the influence of Cardinal Manning, the primate of the English Catholic Church, and against them were the greater part of the English Catholics and prelates resident in Rome, though of the former there were some influential individuals, such as Lords Ripon and Bute, on the side of the Home-Rulers. Under these circumstances, the Pope decided to send to Ireland a confidential representative, and through him learn the truth. The report of this emissary, an Italian, was submitted with all the prior arguments to the College of Cardinals, mainly Italians, and the question was decided by their unanimous verdict.

It is true that there are parties in the Church and opposing tendencies—mainly the Jesuits on one side and the more liberal orders on the other; but their antagonism hardly goes beyond differences as to the policy best calculated to restore the supremacy of the Church, and to apply the term liberal in its commonly understood sense to either party would be a mistake. When the Church begins to "liberalize," it begins to break up. The advantages in the control of the Church by the Italian clergy are, that, besides being the traditional guardians, they are the most conservative, and that the Italian nation has during so many centuries been non-existent (and, so far as the Church is concerned, is so still) that the Italian clergy is a neutral depositary of the Church's sanctions, avoiding all questions of precedence and rivalry, just as the Latin language serves to silence all claims of any living tongue. When the Church leaves its present seat, the first step is taken towards its nationalization, and the consequent and inevitable division into as many churches as there are nations. This it is, more than any desire to regain a temporal sovereignty, that impels the Pope and the Church to hold with such tenacity to the restoration of Rome. This it is which makes the "monopoly of ecclesiastical rule" necessarily Italian; and the more furious the struggle of nationalities in Europe, the more imperative it is that the Pope should be an Italian.

I have not treated the question as a Catholic, as any good Catholic will see, but as an observer who has lived long under the influence of the Papacy, and studied its workings without prejudice or hostility, as without any sympathy with its doctrines or tendencies.

W. J. S.

THE WHIGS OF 1832.—I.

LONDON, December 23, 1889.

PAST politics are the dreariest and the most instructive of studies. Whoever doubts their dreariness should try to read through a volume of Hansard, say for 1832. If our sceptic accomplish his task, he will never again maintain that the details of byegone political battles can be otherwise than wearisome. Whoever questions the instructiveness of the dullest political annals, should read with care Mr. Walpole's 'Life of Lord John Russell,'* and the 'Melbourne Papers.' Neither book is lively reading. The biography is the political life of an able but uninteresting statesman, written by a painstaking but dull biographer. The Papers are disappointing; they are the fragmentary pieces of a fragmentary correspondence, which give tantalising glimpses into the mind of a Minister whose personality was far more original than his policy, and whose true character remains to the end an undeciphered enigma.

But books which disappoint a reader's hope for interest may yet amply satisfy a student's desire for instruction. From them he may learn to understand the causes both of the success and the failure of that Whig party whereof the name hardly survives and the effective influence has long become a thing of the past.

"Over the past not heaven itself has power:
What has been has, and I have had my hour."

These are words more than once applied by Lord John Russell to his own career; they might be appropriately inscribed on a monument to the Whigs of 1832. These men, of whom no Englishman should ever speak but with the profoundest respect, "had their hour." What did they accomplish? The true answer is, that they rendered to their nation, and through England to the world, three immense services, of which the first earned for its authors a vast though transitory popularity; the second brought upon them bitter, though undeserved, popular hatred; the third, and perhaps the greatest, excited little notice at the time, and is now all but forgotten.

Their first achievement was to carry the Reform Bill. What this measure meant to the men of 1832 it is difficult for men living in

* 'Life of Lord John Russell.' By Spencer Walpole. Longmans, Green & Co.

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1890 to understand. A lapse of more than half a century is of itself sufficient to place a great gulf between the present generation and a generation who found their leaders, and, so to speak, deliverers, in Grey and Russell and Brougham. But it is not the mere lapse of time which makes it so hard for us to-day to appreciate the real meaning of "reform." The whole state of public and, if one may use the expression, of private opinion also, has undergone a fundamental but subtle revolution which even reflecting persons find it the harder to understand because in England the change has not been marked by the phenomena of revolutionary violence. The essential difference, in so far as it can be summed up in a sentence, may be thus defined. The men of 1832 had grown up in a period during which not only reform but even alteration or improvement seemed all but impossible; fixity had become the law of English life and of English institutions. Modern Englishmen live in an age which has seen most things changed and which feels all things to be changeable. What gave to the Reform Bill its true significance was that it visibly terminated the era of immobility. It changed much; it opened the prospect of far greater changes. The year 1832 was to thousands of Englishmen what 1789 was to thousands of Frenchmen—the opening of a new age. British enthusiasm took, as was natural, a milder and more rational form than the French frenzy of hope which heralded in the bloodshed of the Revolution. Englishmen did not hope, perhaps they did not care, to renovate Humanity. They did hope to reform their own institutions, and in due measure obtained the fulfilment of their desire.

The point to notice is that the Whig leaders, who were essentially among the most moderate of politicians, were, when they carried the Reform Bill, the representatives of something very like revolutionary sentiment. Hence the enthusiasm of followers; hence, too, the genuine fear and hatred of opponents. The fervor of men so little fervid as Sydney Smith and Lord Cockburn was as genuine, and, we may add, neither more nor less natural than the fears of men as bold as Scott, the Duke of Wellington, or Croker. Schedule A and Schedule B contained a good deal more than the destruction of rotten boroughs; they virtually contained, though possibly the Whig leaders hardly saw this distinctly, the revolution, or the possibility of revolution, in the whole system of English life. Put the matter at the very lowest, the Reform Bill of 1832 was the transfer of political power from the landowners and the aristocracy to great traders and to the middle classes. The Whigs earned for the moment the popularity which belonged to men who suddenly carried through a change desired by the mass of their countrymen. Nor was the credit which the Whigs gained undeserved. As Parliamentary reformers, they deserve the praise which cannot often be given to English politicians, of boldly carrying through at one stroke as large a measure as the occasion demanded. It is easy for a critic in 1890 to say that the country would have gained if the Whigs, by extending the suffrage to all householders, had prevented the renewal during the century of the cry for reform. But it is more than doubtful whether in 1832 a measure more extensive than the Reform Act could have been passed, or, if passed, would have been beneficial. To pass the Act showed a boldness not often exhibited by British statesmanship.

The second achievement of the Whigs was the reform of the poor law. Of all the services which statesmen have within the century rendered to England, the introduction of the New Poor Law will, in the eyes of impartial critics, be esteemed the greatest. When an historian meditates upon the habitual cowardice of Parliamentary leaders, on the inevitable tendency of representative government to turn even upright politicians into worshippers of public opinion, and on the singular want of administrative capacity displayed by the Whigs of 1832, he will be filled both with admiration and wonder at the one piece of bold constructive legislation by which the Whigs saved England from ruin. For it is no exaggeration to say that pauperism was destroying the country, and that while the old system of relief lasted, the increase of pauperism was a moral, one might almost say a physical, certainty.

A glance at the report of the Commission which formed the basis of the New Poor Law, the perusal of the third volume of Walpole's 'History of England,' or a study of Miss Martineau's now forgotten tales in illustration of political economy, will easily convince the reader that this statement of the condition of England does not err on the side of exaggeration. The nation suffered from a dangerous disease which might prove fatal. The Whigs had the boldness to apply the true remedy. "The effects of the measure [the New Poor Law] were seen almost instantaneously. The cost of relief steadily decreased, and the burden of supporting the poor, which had exceeded £7,000,000 in 1832, was only slightly over £4,000,000 in 1837. . . . Moderate men could afford," adds Mr. Walpole, "to disregard the clamors of politicians like Cobbett, whose influence had already waned, and of young men like Mr. Disraeli, whose opportunity had not yet arrived." The glory of the Whig Ministry is that they disregarded the clamor of the people and saved the nation. They had their reward; they proved their patriotism and they lost their popularity, for no measure was ever more unpopular than the law which carried out the soundest maxims of political economy just where they came into conflict with the most widespread sentiment of injudicious charity. Politicians of all parties find it difficult enough to-day to support against popular feeling principles of poor relief which half a century and more has proved to be beneficial. A generation who can hardly imitate should at least pay the tribute of admiration to statesmen who, in the face of popular outcry, dared to try a bold experiment then justifiable only by faith in sound principles.

The passing of the Reform Act and the introduction of the New Poor Law could not fail to arouse the most vehement feelings, either, as as the case might be, of approval or reprobation. The third service rendered to England by the Whigs has been, as already intimated, almost unnoticed. Lord Grey and his followers guided the nation pacifically through a period of revolution. The difficulty of this achievement can be understood only by those who note the state of the country in 1832, and who also notice how rare are the instances in which a fundamental change in a nation's institutions has been accomplished without violence: revolution is, in popular language, almost equivalent to insurrection and civil war, and common parlance here reflects, as it is wont to do, the common experience of mankind. In 1832 all the signs were visible from which men rightly infer the approach of violent revolution. All classes were discontented. George IV. had ruined the moral credit of the Crown. The peerage and the Church were unpopular. The middle classes aspired to power. Men of sense knew that during fifty years of reaction or repression abuses had accumulated. Every one felt that some change was necessary, and most persons felt that every change was full of peril. The laboring classes were in misery, and were quite prepared, if the occasion offered, to try if the evils they suffered from might not be remedied by violence. The transactions of 1829 showed that popular organization could be stronger than the law. The experience of Ireland was not lost on the people of England, and the now almost forgotten "glorious three days" at Paris seemed a proof that a mob of citizens could overthrow an unpopular government, and were in truth a proof that, in periods of excitement, the forces meant to defend the Crown might easily be used to affect the success of an insurrection. It is by no means clear that, had the peers persisted in rejecting the Reform Bill, some portion at least of the army might not have "fraternized," to use the French phrase, with the people.

In 1841 the Whigs quitted office as a party no longer possessing the power and credit necessary for carrying on the Government of the country; yet the difference between 1841 and 1831 was the true proof of the benefits which Whig statesmanship had conferred upon the United Kingdom. The time of revolution was passed. Compare this state of things with the state of France in the same year. The era of revolution was no doubt thought by Louis Philippe and his ministers to be closed. That they should have believed this must, to any one who examines the history of France between 1830 and 1841, seem a curious instance of political blindness, for more than once the Orleans dynasty had been kept on the throne by nothing but the free use of the armed force. We now, at any rate, know that whoever in 1841 believed Louis Philippe's throne to be firmly established, was the victim of a delusion. The year of revolutions, 1848, tested the work of French and of English constitutionalists. The test was decisive. It proved that the French Liberals of 1830 had unsettled everything and had founded nothing; it proved also that the Whigs of 1832 had conducted England pacifically through a perilous revolutionary crisis. But though Whig statesmanship had succeeded, Whig statesmen had lost their influence. Why this was so is a question well worth consideration. X.

Correspondence.

NEITHER BACHE NOR DUANE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter of January 2, entitled "Bache, not Duane," Mr. Ford has given a charming example of the true journalistic rejoinder. Having ignored the main point of my letter, he takes six lines in which I expressed doubt whether Duane wrote what he had previously referred to in these words, "The farewell to Washington on his leaving the Presidency, penned by Duane, has become a classic of unseemly libel"; or whether it had been published in the *Aurora*.

After searching in three libraries, I have found an unmutilated copy of the *Aurora* of March 6, 1797, to which I am referred for personal annihilation. An inspection of this paper enables me now to make the positive statement that not only is Mr. Ford wrong, as he has confessed, in attributing this classic libel to Duane, but equally wrong in charging its authorship to Bache. This classic farewell is a small contribution to the paper of thirty-five lines "From a *correspondent*." Nor is it a farewell to Washington at all, but a fare-

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well of the writer because a new era has dawned. Its opening words of quotation, "Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace," have deceived Mr. Ford. Familiarity with the New Testament would show that they were the words of one quitting this mortal stage. The brief communication is in form more severe than what would now be approved of, but the time was marked by savage invective on all sides. Our fathers liked that sort of thing. The central thought and the bitterest expression of the thirty-five lines is contained in the phrase which calls for "Exultation, that the name of Washington from this day ceases to give a currency to political iniquity and to legalize corruption."

In the main thought, that there was danger to republicanism from the presence of an overshadowing personality and the influence of a celebrated name, probably half of the people of the country believed. Towards the close of Washington's Administration, Jefferson wrote to Monroe, referring to Congress: "You will have seen by their proceedings the truth of what I always observed to you, that one man outweighs them all in the influence over the people, who have supported his judgment against their own and that of their representatives." Lodge, in his recent Life or eulogy of Washington, corroborates this position. Referring to the signing of Jay's treaty, he thus pictures and praises the President's attitude: "With his own party silenced and even divided, with the Opposition rampant, and with popular excitement at fever heat, Washington was left to take his course alone and unsupported." The inflexible determination and the fine courage needed by a great general are not always the best qualifications of a political leader. The great statesman should carry his people with him.

Both Bache and Duane shared in what was a common feeling of their day, the fear of the reëstablishment of a personal government. Both labored successfully in building up the great party that soon swept its Federal opponents into nothingness; a party that deserved its success, because it believed in the people, the influence of whose solid judgment, when enlightened by due discussion, the country has often experienced, and doubtless often will witness. Both of them have also been cleared of the particular charge of libellous writings made by Mr. Ford; and in speaking of them as he has done, it seems to me that he has made at least a mistake. C. W. DUANE.

PHILADELPHIA, January 13, 1890.

A CABINET OF THE HOUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The instructive comparison between the British Parliament and the American Congress, drawn by Mr. Bryce in his widely read book 'The American Commonwealth,' has fixed the attention of many readers, as nothing has done before, upon the defects of the American system. The main defects are two—lack of contact between the executive and legislative branches of the Government, and lack of concert and proper organization in Congress itself. The latter is probably the greater evil of the two, and the more mischievous in its effect upon legislation.

The need of a remedy is clearly set forth by Mr. Bryce. The possibility of applying a remedy, and the nature of the remedy to be applied, are problems in which every patriotic American must feel an interest. The remedy proposed and so ingeniously urged by your correspondent "G. B." is noticed, although not very fully discussed, by Mr. Bryce. He makes it clear, however, that conferring upon Cabinet Ministers the right of appearing in Congress to discuss measures before the House or Senate would be an inadequate remedy, and might have results other than those desired.

A remedy which shall meet the wants of the case must begin with a reform in the organization and business methods of the House of Representatives, whose defects are most apparent and most productive of evil legislation. The numerous small committees of the House, having no policy in common, and ignorant of each other's work, produce conflicting laws, and, being composed of members of both parties, are often hampered in their work by differences among themselves; hence the bills which they report are generally in the nature of compromises and represent no definite policy. Are these committees indispensable? Or might a substitute be found for them which would do the work better? A single Governing Committee, chosen from the members of the majority, having the sole power of originating revenue and appropriation bills, and given the control and direction of all important measures, taking precedence of other members upon the floor, and furnished with a sufficient force of clerks and with eminent legal counsel, might give at least a single definite policy to the legislation of a session, and produce some degree of harmony where chaos reigns at present.

For the discussion of all minor and private bills the House might be divided into several grand committees of forty or fifty members each, on which the Opposition should be represented, which should have the right of choosing their own chairmen, appointing sub-committees, summoning witnesses, etc., and should act in general for the Committee of the Whole. In this way business might be expedited and a check be put upon the secret influences of the small committee-rooms. Having thus organized the House by appointing a Governing Committee composed of the leaders of the majority, and six or seven grand committees of mixed politics, it remains to bring it into contact with the executive branch of the Government. This could best be done by requesting the President to summon the Governing Committee of the House to certain stated meetings of the Cabinet, at which all money bills and bills affecting the departments should be discussed before presenting them to the House. Thus the Governing Committee would have the benefit of all the information the Cabinet officers could give concerning the effect of its measures on their respective departments, while retaining complete control of legislation in its own hands. The responsibility for every measure would rest with the Governing Committee, and so long as it could command a majority in the House its power would be supreme. If defeated on an important bill, it must give place to a new committee, representing the new majority, and would thus reflect the English Cabinet in all but its administrative functions.

Such a body of trained leaders would add dignity and power to the House itself, and offer prizes in the way of promotion which would be an incentive to industry and ambition among the members. It would offer a mark for the Opposition, and challenge public scrutiny of its acts, throwing the light of public debate on the merits and defects of all the measures which it championed, which would necessarily be few and of the first importance.

By adopting such an organization, the House would surrender neither power nor prerogative, but would gain much greater efficiency, and probably increase its influence in the councils of the nation, while the people would be the gainer by the more enlightened and economical legislation most certain to result.

The increased contact between the legislature and the executive, so long as the majority in the House was in harmony with the Administration, would strengthen the hands of both. When, however, the House was hostile to the Cabinet, the conferences between them might result in compromises less prejudicial to the interests of the Government than those which are at present hatched out in secret committee-rooms.—Respectfully, WM. W. HUDSON.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, December 30, 1889.

THE INWARDNESS OF THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A New York newspaper that prides itself on being the special mouthpiece of the present Administration is printing a droll series of "Talks on the Tariff," and boastfully defying its tariff-reform contemporaries to answer them, if they can. As the newspapers challenged presumably have enough of serious work on hand without replying to dialectical banter, permit a "literary fellow," whose time hangs heavy on his hands, to point out an interesting admission that this latest theorizer on protectionism is betrayed into making. At the top of each article is printed this choice bit of logical tomfoolery:

"The price of a thing is what is given for what is gotten. To get an article of home production, we—the nation at large—must pay for it nothing whatever as respects the labor and capital which produced it, and nothing in the way of profit to the producer. We, as a nation, part with nothing but the materials used up. The American people can manufacture every staple article of metal, wood, or leather, every staple fabric of wool, cotton, or silk, cheaper than it can import it."

Isn't this frank? We can produce staple goods of every kind cheaper than we can import them, yet our manufacturers have the impudence to demand a 47 per cent. tariff to raise prices artificially! It is not because they are bothered by any vulgar considerations of cost that they want protection; bless our simple souls, no! As a "nation at large" we don't cost ourselves a copper. Production is all right; what we want is to monkey with distribution. The poor are altogether too well off. The rich must be supported by taxes. Tariff-reformers have suspected for some time that this was the true inwardness of the protectionist's brain, but they had not expected to see him display his gray matter to an unfeeling world quite so unreservedly.

ONE OF THE UNFEELING.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW IN COLORADO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent, in the issue of your paper of December 12, makes some comments upon the state of constitutional law in Colorado. An inference might be drawn from the writer's words that there is something almost *sui generis* in the Constitution of this State, in its limitations upon legislative power. On the contrary, the scope of power in the legislative branch under this instrument has been found to be amply sufficient for the public welfare. It is admitted that the instrument is closer on the economic side than a majority of State constitutions. Still, it is broad enough even in this respect to meet all reasonable demands with a fair margin to spare. The fact that there are restrictions in this instrument against extravagance on the part of the legislative branch, and that the Secretary of State is intrusted with the power of purchasing supplies there-

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for, is in no respect incompatible with the proper exercise of legislative functions. The contingency that needed legislation may be prevented, by a failure of duty in the premises by the Secretary, may be dismissed, for history proves that this officer is ever ready with supplies *ad infinitum*.

It is admitted that a model constitution should be very sparing in parliamentary rules. Still, the most that can be generally charged against such rules is innocuous frivolity, which is the least of evils in law-making. The fret of legislators over such rules is not that needed legislation is thereby actually prevented, but that such are an infringement upon right of choice in procedure. Hence the public is not visibly injured.

The Constitutional Convention of 1876 was superior in qualifications to any other law-making body that has ever assembled in the State. The close economic aspect of the instrument is chiefly ascribable to two causes: first, a general distrust that the opponents to the organization of a State might prevail on the argument of expense, which prospective argument, in the eyes of the convention, was greatly magnified by the general feeling of poverty and unrest engendered by the devastation of the Rocky Mountain locust; secondly, the Convention was imbued with a deep distrust of legislatures, which seemed to be justifiable then as well as now, and was but the echo of public opinion. Truly, that the Caloptenus Spretus left his foot-prints on the organic law, affords no cause of complaint to the people, but rather a cause for rejoicing.

The position of Judge Helm in drawing inferences in his opinion upon historic grounds and slight verbal changes against *stare decisis* is untenable. The Judge by his construction gives to the provision quoted by said correspondent a meaning that the Legislature framing it did not contemplate—that is to say, the legislative mind had neither a negative nor an affirmative purpose in regard to the value of such opinions as general judicial precedents. So far as evidence goes, both from word and act, the Legislature was confined solely to the purpose of avoiding breakers as to its own acts. The very hostility of the Legislature to the court at that time precluded any intention of enlarging such power beyond the necessity of the expedient. Furthermore, such provision was not created upon "solemn occasions," but was injected into the bill by a hasty amendment in a committee of the whole.

In legislative parlance, when any power is to be conferred upon the Court as a whole, or upon any of its members as judges, it is customary to use the term "the Supreme Court." This method of reference always occurs except in cases of variation by reason of a strict adherence to some model to the contrary, or in case of some special precision of expression insisted upon by an accurate and painstaking lawyer.

The requirement that "all such opinions shall be published in connection with the reported decisions of the Court" was not in view of any new or strengthened purpose to be given the opinions, but was solely for convenience of reference. It looks as though the Court was somewhat bent to give the provision a narrower scope and a deeper meaning, thereby to lessen such legislative demands, and thus escape from being "swamped."

The Judge uses these words: "The successive legislatures meeting after the admission of Colorado to Statehood encountered great difficulty in the enactment of laws, on account of numerous wise, but troublesome, limitations contained in the Constitution." I think no instance can be found in which a competent legislator has thus been seriously troubled. The difficulty in the way of needed legislation has been the incorrigibility of the personnel of the legislatures. Instances of enactments pronounced void or inoperative on constitutional grounds are not so numerous as might be inferred from the words of the Judge; and the cause of any such is usually traceable to the stupidity of its framers.

In the use of models for drafting bills, verbal changes occur from clerical inadvertence, from a purpose of brevity, and from sheer caprice, with no intention thereby to work a change of meaning. So there are scattered through the reports instances in which judicial eagerness is shown in finding solemn distinctions in slight verbal changes that have no deeper cause of being than such inconsequential accidents.

The following phenomena are here observable from the existence of this provision: (1) that legislative bodies are ready to ask for such opinions on the most frivolous pretexts; (2) this method is used to avoid expenditure of thought; (3) the supporters of a measure, in order to escape the argument of unconstitutionality by their opponents, seek such opinions, hoping for a favorable response; (4) a legislator who finds himself in a dilemma of either favoring a measure against his judgment or of making dangerous enemies against his own pet schemes, seeks a passage of escape by thus shouldering the responsibility upon the Court.

O. F. A. GREENE.

BOULDER, COL., January 2, 1890.

[Mr. Greene appears to agree with our former correspondent in thinking that, upon the true exposition of the Colorado Constitution, the opinion of C. J. Helm is not sound.—ED. NATION.]

DELPHI ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Several months ago an appeal was made through the *Nation* on behalf of the American School in Athens, for aid in securing to the School the privilege of excavation at Delphi. The amount estimated as necessary to assure the ownership of the site ($75,000) seemed small indeed for a nation so wealthy and so generous as our own, and many correspondents have expressed surprise at the intimation then given that small contributions from scholars all over the land might be needed, as they certainly would be welcomed. Experience has proved that we were too sanguine rather than over-anxious. No American of great wealth has seized upon this unique opportunity to attach an honorable and lasting fame to his own name. Though the interest aroused is enthusiastic and widespread, it is chiefly among men of slender means. But, from all sources combined, nothing like sufficient contributions and pledges have been secured to win for our country this great opportunity.

News has just been received that the Greek Government has generously extended the time within which their offer may be accepted until June, 1890. With this encouragement it is clear that the sum needed can be obtained. But it is equally clear that success can be assured only by much more widespread effort and sacrifice, on the part of scholars and lovers of learning, than has yet been manifested. Some communities have done their part most generously and promptly. For instance, the officers and students of Cornell University have pledged $322 for this fund. Smith and Swarthmore Colleges and Boston University have made similar efforts in proportion to their means. The pupils and teachers of Riverview Academy in Poughkeepsie have subscribed nearly $200, and the Boston High School girls a slightly larger sum. But there are many far wealthier colleges, and numberless classical schools, where no interest whatever has been expressed.

Probably no one seriously questions the unrivalled importance of this opportunity to the future of classical studies among us. Let it be said as plainly as possible, therefore, that a hearty and general coöperation among thoughtful men and women in every community of the fatherland, is apparently the only means to save us from final failure; a failure which will certainly leave behind it the sting of lasting mortification and regret.

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON,
Agent of the Archæological Institute.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 9, 1890.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce among their earlier publications of the present year 'Thomas Jefferson's Views on Public Education,' by John C. Henderson; 'The First International Railway and the Early Colonization of New England,' by Laura E. Poor; 'Railway Secrecy; its Relation to Inter-State Legislation,' by John M. Bonham; 'American Farms; their Condition and Future,' by J. R. Elliott; 'The Story of the Barbary Corsairs,' by Stanley Lane-Poole and Lieut. J. D. Jerrold Kelley, U. S. N.; 'Six to One,' by Edward Bellamy; and a reprint of 'A Far Look Ahead' (namely, to New York society in the 96th century).

'The Unknown God, or Inspiration among Pre-Christian Nations,' by Charles Loring Brace, is in the press of A. C. Armstrong & Son.

T. Whittaker issues directly 'The Prayer-Book Reason Why,' by the Rev. Nelson R. Boss, and 'Pathways to the Church,' by the Rev. Geo. W. Shinn.

We read in the London *Bookseller* of December 14, 1889, of the amalgamation of the publishing firms of Trübner & Co., Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., and George Redway into a limited-liability company.

Two more volumes have been added to the excellent series, "English History from Contemporary Writers" (London: David Nutt), viz., 'S. Thomas of Canterbury, 1118-1220,' edited by the Rev. W. H. Hutton, and 'England under Charles II., 1660-1678,' edited by W. F. Taylor. They are excellent samples of the scheme, both as respects the intrinsic interest of the documents and the ease with which the historical sequence can be preserved, owing to the copious authorities. Both are quaintly illustrated.

We have received the first volume of *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, edited by a committee of the classical instructors of the University, and published in Boston by Ginn & Co. It is a handsome volume of some 200 pages, with a general index and an index of citations. Prof. J. B. Greenough leads off with an antiquarian discussion of *fauces* as applied to a house passage, and shows it to have been the front entrance to the *atrium*. A Latin dissertation, on the modes of deriving fire among the ancients, by Morris H. Morgan, follows. Full and interesting is the paper on the social and domestic position of women in Aristophanes, by Herman W. Haley. Prof. W. W.

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Goodwin debates certain Greek constructions. Prof. George M. Lane contributes notes on Quintilian, marked by his customary elegance of scholarship. Plutarch, Vitruvius, and Tacitus also have their commentators. The *Studies* thus make a notable beginning.

Both the Harvard and Yale catalogues for the current year are on our table. They offer an interesting contrast in arrangement, that of Harvard making each department complete as it proceeds, while that of Yale groups all the courses in front and all the student lists at the end, with some obvious advantages.

The most thorough and scientific treatment ever bestowed on the Pennsylvania German dialect has been exhibited in late numbers of the *American Journal of Philology*, by Dr. Marion D. Learned of the Johns Hopkins University. Part I. has now been printed by itself, while Part II., which will deal with German mixture, and etymology, is promised hereafter.

The slow-appearing Historical Collections of the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., just now reaches us in the issue for the second quarter of 1888. Its main interest will be found to lie in Mr. B. W. Crowninshield's account of his eccentric kinsman's international pleasure-yacht, *Cleopatra's Barge*, built in 1816, with dimensions and tonnage closely resembling those of Mr. Burgess's *Mayflower*.

Despite a certain factitious jocularity and a few stray Briticisms, a little book called 'Whist With and Without Perception,' by "B. W. D." and "Cavendish" (London: De La Rue), may be recommended to those who know what real whist is. The chief novelty of the book is that it gives a series of end games. In chess the books have long since made us almost as familiar with the common end game as with the accepted openings, and "B. W. D." adroitly adapts the same method to whist.

Three of the French Christmas books for boys and girls have an interest for Americans. The first is 'L'Aînée,' by J. Lermont, "d'après Suzan Coolidge." The second is M. André Laurie's 'De New York à Brest en Sept Heures,' with illustrations by M. Riou. Both of these are published in Paris by Hetzel (New York: F. W. Christern). The third is 'Le Tueur de Daims,' by Meryem Cecyl, "d'après Fenimore Cooper," illustrated by M. Ed. Zier (Paris: Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern).

The unexpected results of law-making were perhaps never more characteristically shown than in the decline of the habit of publishing plays in Paris because of a decision of an American court that performance was not publication, and that therefore an unpublished play could not be acted without the consent of the author, even though he were a foreigner. M. Sardou's comedies are no longer published on the day of their first performance in Paris as was once the case, and many of the minor French dramatists have followed his example. Augier and Dumas have made no effort to hold their American acting-rights, and their plays are published and read as though they were novels. In like manner, M. Alphonse Daudet has published his "Lutte pour la vie" (Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). The play was reviewed at length by our Paris correspondent not long ago. Its publication is not likely to lead to its piracy on the American stage, as the subject and the treatment are quite foreign to American tastes.

In October, 1885, the Rev. Mr. Baker, Prime Minister of the King of the Tonga Islands, while cruising among the group, had the rare good fortune of witnessing the formation of an island during a prolonged submarine eruption, and he described this remarkable scene in a letter to the Royal Geographical Society. The volcanic matter, mingled with clouds of carbonic and sulphurous gases, was thrown up with prodigious force to a height of several thousand feet. The heavier matter quickly fell; the vapors expanded above into clouds of dazzling whiteness and fantastic shapes; and the lighter volcanic dust (of a light brown color) drifted away at a great elevation. This vast mass of matter was ejected in three large and several smaller jets, "the largest one rushing upwards from time to time like a solid wall of dark matter, often branching like a pine tree." The next morning an island had been formed forty feet high and more than a mile in circumference. The eruptions continued with some intervals for an indefinite time, greatly increasing the size of the island, until it became about five miles long by three wide. Very recently H. M. S. *Egeria* touched at Falcon Island, as it has been named, and found that it was fast disappearing. A party landed and explored the island, though at the evident risk of their lives. It was composed of volcanic cinders which had the appearance of coke, but became liquid when placed in the fire. In some places these cinders were so hot as to make the walking upon them painful and even dangerous. Sulphurous springs also were found in several places. The exploring party planted a flag on the highest point, some sixty feet from the edge of the cliff and two hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. They had scarcely reached the ship when a large part of the cliff fell into the sea, making a vast column of white vapor. Three days later the flag had disappeared. A picture of the island is given in the *Graphic* for December 21, as it appeared at the time of the visit of the *Egeria*.

Highly interesting views of people and scenery in New Guinea, after photographs, are given in connection with an article by Hugo Zöller, "Deutsche Kultur in den Barbarenländern von Neuguinea," in *Vom Fels zum Meer*, No. 1, 1889–'90 (New York: F. W. Christern).

Few official documents that we receive give us more satisfaction than those relating to the public health of Japan. A summary of the annual reports of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department of that Empire for the five years from July, 1879, to June, 1884, inclusive, belongs to that class. This is printed in English at Tokio, in an octavo pamphlet of 160 pages, including tables, and contains a review of the operations of the Bureau in relation to the control of cholera and other epidemic diseases, the regulation of medical practice, and the preparation and sale of drugs, of the extermination of venomous serpents, of the establishment of a vaccine form, the erection of crematories, and general progress in sanitation. Various tables of vital statistics are included. It is by the courtesy of Dr. Nagayo Sensai, Director of the Central Bureau, that we have received this report; and Dr. Nagayo is to be felicitated on the remarkable assimilation to western ways his countrymen have made.

The last, hitherto unnoticed, parts of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (B. Westermann & Co.) carry the work into the fifteenth volume and the letter T, and meantime the end must very nearly have been reached. The geographical articles of greatest moment, as giving the freshest information about the probable participants in the next European convulsion, are those on Rumania, Russia, and Servia. Socialism is the chief topic of domestic polity; Schiller and Shakspere the leading biographical notices. Schiller, we are told, is first the poet of youth, and then of reverting old age; and light is thrown on the question (not raised here) whether this poet is holding his own in popular estimation, by a list of his monuments, those since the centenary of 1859 being strikingly numerous. There is the usual profusion of colored plates, of maps, plans of cities, etc. Among these Zanzibar and the neighboring German possessions (if they can be so called, *beati non possidentes*) and Samoa deserve special mention among the charts. We remark, finally, a comparative sheet of stenographic systems.

Nansen's official report of his overland Greenland expedition is translated in No. 142 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (Berlin: D. Reimer), accompanied by a map of the east and west shores of the continent.

The second report of Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner on Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties, is a Senate document (No. 2), dated January, 1890. We commend it to the custodians of records in any part of the Union, partly for its exposure of the lamentable confusion which prevails in Massachusetts, but also for its demonstration of the need of preserving and copying the older records particularly, and its many practical suggestions. One chapter deserves to be widely read, as it discusses the permanence of typewritten copy. The conclusion is that, if the ink be of the right kind (black preferably, blue possibly), the permanence is as great as in the case of press printing. Mr. Swan therefore recommends this mode, which has so great a superiority over pen-writing in other respects.

The holiday number of the *Northwestern Miller* (Minneapolis) is a very striking product of Western enterprise, about evenly divided between text and advertisements, and freely illustrated. We single out for mention a view of the new "whale-back" grain barge which appears to be revolutionizing lake transportation, both as respects capacity and safety, and indeed speed. We are likely to see these strange monitor craft on the Atlantic seaboard, perhaps even adapted to passenger service. A good descriptive article accompanies the cut.

The *Studio* for December 7, 1889, was a Barye number, fully illustrated; the number for January 4, 1890, is occupied in part with another sculptor, Auguste Rodin, who is shown at his work, while another plate copies his sketch for the statue of Bastien-Lepage.

One of the most distinguished and best known scholars of Finland, August Ahlqvist, died at Helsingfors on November 20, of pneumonia, at the age of sixty-three. When very young he travelled in Karelia, Russia, Siberia, and Hungary in order to collect materials for the comparative study of the Finnic-Ugric languages. The result was shown in numerous philological works, one of which, 'The *Cultur*-Words of the West Finnish Language,' an attempt to study the civilization of the race, was translated into German. His 'Reminiscences of Travel' and a tale called 'Among the Voguls and the Ostiaks' were also published in German. But the Professor of Finnish Language and Literature at the University of Helsingfors was also a poet, and many of his songs are popular in the country. To learning, enthusiasm, and eloquence there was added the social charm. No one who knew him will forget him.

—The fourth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) ends with *Friction*. A fair proportion of articles are by writers of known authority. The late Laurence Oliphant furnished that on the Druses; Austin Dobson writes of Fielding, G. Saintsbury of Dryden,

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R. H. Hutton of George Eliot; Prof. Henry Morley deals with English Literature. Prof. Geddes undertakes, with marked unfitness, a popular exposition of Evolution; and, by the way, the writer on Feathers has missed his opportunity to cite Darwin's pet demonstration of the genesis of the ocelli. Emerson's life is liberally retold by Dr. Holmes, whose use of the first person singular in one place, on p. 325, has been overlooked by the editor, and who, on the same page, makes Emerson's sympathy with the "long-haired reformers" of Chardon-Street conventions a little too remote. Mr. Emerson's hair was not shorter than that of most of them. The article on Dolls omits mention of what ancient Egypt has handed down in that line, and asserts too broadly at least that black dolls are manufactured for black babies in the United States. White babies have been known to cherish them, and are, we suspect, the chief if not the sole consumers of them. In fact, a Southern paper lately made it a reproach to the colored people of that section that they never purchased dusky dolls for their own children. Loyalty to Queen Victoria is said to have determined that blue-eyed dolls should be preferred in England during her reign. The articles are mostly brought well down to date, as in the case of Floods (with notice of the Johnstown disaster) and of Edward Fitzgerald, etc. (with mention of the new Life and Letters). Under *Encyclopædia* is given a useful list of this class of works. There are maps of the District of Columbia, of Florida, of England, Europe, and France, and the usual illustrations.

—The death of M. Paul Andral, which occurred on December 19, 1889, recalls the circumstances and conditions under which he became the guardian of Prince Talleyrand's memoirs. Talleyrand died in the year 1838, and left his memoirs by will to Andral, with the stipulation that there should be a delay of thirty years before they should be published. But when this time expired in 1868, M. Andral found that there were still some people alive whose feelings might be wounded by the appearance of the memoirs, and, on that account, added another twenty years to the period that Talleyrand had set. When this time came to an end, year before last, the same motives as before led M. Andral to a new delay, to which he declined to set any definitive term. He had made up his mind, the *Figaro* says, to wait till all reasons for delicacy had passed away. There is, then, it would seem, not much ground for expecting soon to see the long-waited-for volumes. M. Andral has doubtless left behind him directions which will tie the hands of his executors. The manuscript of the memoirs is a bulky one. It will make from twelve to fifteen volumes when it gets into print. At present it is at Châteauvieux (where M. Andral died), shut up in sealed cases, safe from indiscreet eyes. M. Paul Andral was a son of the great physician of that name, and was in his time one of the leaders of the Paris bar. Berryer, as well as Talleyrand, made him his literary executor.

—The latest contribution to the problem of Talleyrand's motives and character comes from the researches of M. Th. G. Pallain, who has just published a volume of papers and letters bearing upon Talleyrand's mission to London, in which he includes the letters sent by him from America to Lord Lansdowne. What Talleyrand hoped to gain from England was an engagement to absolute neutrality, and an official declaration of it in such terms as should have weight with Holland, Prussia, and the Emperor; an alliance offensive and defensive between France, England, and the United States, to open to these three Powers the commerce of the Spanish possessions in the South Seas as well as in the Atlantic; and, lastly, to negotiate a loan of at least four millions sterling, which should be guaranteed by the English Government, in return for which guarantee France was willing to cede Tobago to England. Talleyrand went to London in January, 1792, but, as he was not properly accredited, there were many delays. At last, in April, Chauvelin was sent over to be the head of the embassy in name, though Talleyrand was its moving spirit as before. They only gained the official announcement of neutrality; the rest of the scheme miscarried, partly from George the Third's antipathy to France, and partly, also, from the distrust that the earlier movements of the Revolution were beginning to create across the Channel. At last Talleyrand was obliged to leave England, and took refuge in the United States. His letters from this country, although they are not of very great historical value, will be read with much interest. Their author was at that time, as the *Revue Bleue* says, "already the cool observer whom nothing escapes; who, putting nothing of himself into things, sees them as they are, and not as he would like them to be." "Il rassemble des faits politiques comme on dépose des curiosités naturelles dans un muséum." He found everybody in America eager to make money. He said that the United States knew too much about politics to believe in such a thing as gratitude between nations, and that, from community of blood and disposition and habits, England was the only foreign Power of which we either would or could be the ally. M. Pallain's book throws some new light also upon the life of Biron, Duc de Lauzun, and upon the party among the nobles that was sincerely attached to the Constitution of 1791.

—A good deal of angry feeling is manifested in late French newspapers at the prohibition of M. François Coppée's new play, "Le Pater," which was to be produced at the Français. The scene of the piece is laid in Paris during the last week of the Commune. A Communard who has taken part in the massacre of the priests seeks refuge in the house of the sister of one of the priests whom he has killed. She hides him from the Versailles troops by disguising him in her brother's cassock, and, that he may play the part of an ecclesiastic better, teaches him the *Pater Noster*. Whether the Government wishes that the memory of the Commune should not be recalled, or whether some prominent political persons feel a little sensitive to any reference to the part they played in 1871, one does not know. From the accounts of the play that are given, the Commune only furnishes a background for the action of the drama, the motives of which are love and forgiveness. The story is founded on fact; at least the *brav' Général* Cluseret tells it for truth in his 'Mémoires.' He sought protection, he says, in May, 1871, from a priest whom he had admitted to the Mazas prison to minister to Archbishop Darboy. This priest took him in and kept him for six months in his house in the dress of an ecclesiastic, took him to theological lectures, and finally, with the help of the Archbishop of Brussels, smuggled him across the frontier. The blow that M. Coppée has received irritates him the more because there was very little civility observed in the delivery of it. M. Fallières simply wrote on a tag: "The Minister refuses to authorize the piece called 'Le Pater,'" and tied it to the manuscript and sent it back. M. Coppée, upon this, wrote an indignant letter to the *Figaro*, which his friends, and others as well, have followed up with other communications in the same sense.

— 'The Possibilities of an Art Gallery in Manchester [England], by a Manchester Man,' is a little pamphlet which might be read with profit by all who are interested in the formation of public galleries in this country. The author is a gentleman who has evidently given considerable time and attention to the study of the administration of Continental museums, with a view to deducing from their experience the principles that should govern the establishment of a provincial museum in England, the scope and aims of which are almost identical with those of the museums that are possible in our country. It is refreshing to see that he at once and heartily condemns the "committee system" of management, and what he says on this subject may well be borne in mind by those who contemplate the establishment or development of galleries of art on this side of the Atlantic:

"The lessons of experience in regard to the *government* of an art gallery are not less clear. They are, briefly, that such a gallery cannot be properly managed by a committee. There must, of course, be a committee to say the last word on financial and other matters, but the more the artistic direction of a gallery is left to a single will and brain, the better will that gallery be. . . . To suppose that a committee of business men, however capable, can do the work of a trained student, . . . is simply childish."

We do not know how far England may possess students who are trained in the branches which are necessary to a man who shall be called upon to fill a position of such grave responsibility, but it is a cause for regret that there are but very few in this country. The need of them is growing every year, however, and to those young men who have had an introduction to the study of the fine arts, such as is offered in our larger colleges, and are now looking for a pursuit in which they can develop the tastes which this study has aroused, we can predict with perfect confidence that the time is near at hand when a few years passed among the museums of Europe, studying their management and their collections, will lead to a position at least as remunerative as that of a college professor, and to a line of work than which none is more absorbing or more satisfactory in its results.

—When, a few weeks since, we noticed Dr. Döllinger's latest work, 'Beiträge zur Sektengeschichte des Mittelalters,' we little thought that we should so soon be called upon to regret his decease. Yet his death cannot be regarded as untimely, for he had rounded out the ripe age of ninety-one, with powers unimpaired. Few men could look back upon a completer or more useful life. In a literary career which had extended over the unusual space of sixty-three years, he had poured forth his exhaustless stores of learning, always in an impartial and judicial spirit, and with the single purpose of utilizing for the benefit of his fellow-men the lessons of the past for the improvement of the present and of the future. The services which such a man renders to his fellows do not end with his death; the seeds which he planted will bear fruit in successive harvests, and he leaves behind him a school of disciples trained in his own rigidly accurate methods of research and exposition.

— The observations of the total solar eclipse of December 22 made by the American party were very successful. After landing at St. Paul de Loanda, a few miles north of the

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eclipse-track, various places in the line of totality were studied with a view to their practicability as observing points, Prof. Todd finally choosing Cape Ledo as his principal station. Muxima, at first thought available, was found to be too far away, as well as too hot and unhealthful, for occupation. Extensive lagoons directly across the river poison the air with miasma, so that it is found difficult to keep even one Portuguese officer stationed at this desolate point. Cape Ledo is on the Bay of Suto, and was found to be in every way a practicable station. The direct view of the eclipse through the photo-heliograph, forty feet long, was an entire success, and all the extensive apparatus, automatic and otherwise, worked without a flaw. Clouds interfered to some extent, but eighty or more photographs were obtained. The pneumatic movements of all the photographic apparatus were thoroughly accurate, and the principle is demonstrated to be correct. During the total eclipse several prominences attained great brilliancy and distinctness.

AN ANCIENT FISHING CLUB.

A History of the Schuylkill Fishing Company of the State in Schuylkill, 1732–1888. "If you look to its *antiquity* it is most ancient, If to its *dignity* it is most honourable, If to its *jurisdiction* it is most extensive." Philadelphia: Printed for the members of the State in Schuylkill. 1889. (For sale by Porter & Coates and J. B. Lippincott Co.)

It is not generally known that the oldest English-speaking club in the world is now in flourishing existence on the banks of the Delaware, near Philadelphia. Its membership has included many of the most famous men of Pennsylvania; it has shown its quaint hospitalities to most of the Presidents of the republic, and Lafayette was proud to join its circle and fulfil the duties prescribed to all its members at their banquets. The modest limit of membership (now 25) was not seriously impaired either by the shock and upheaval of the Revolution or of the great civil war, near a century later. At both these periods the members of the Colony and State in Schuylkill forsook the angle for the sword, and furnished conspicuous instances of patriotic devotion.

The "Castle," for such their club-house is termed, is still the wooden building erected in 1812 on the west side of Schuylkill River where Girard Avenue bridge now crosses, though it has been twice carefully removed and set up on new sites. The by-laws and regulations are substantially the same as first adopted, the customs and duties of the members are unchanged from those of a century ago, and the last published proceedings of the company have the same delightful archaic flavor as the earlier ones, for generations of faithful secretaries have recorded the momentous events in the history of the Club from its foundation till the present day.

There is probably, nay, it may be said certainly, but one pursuit on which can be based an association of men which, particularly in this country, could preserve its integrity for a century and a half. Social clubs, literary clubs, artistic clubs, generally fall to pieces in a few years from their own weight, if they are not sooner destroyed by internal dissensions. Length of life in such associations, especially if small in numbers, depends on the love and devotion of the members to some art or pursuit of a contemplative and innocent character, involving constant subjection to the calming influences of green fields and running waters—in short, such as those of whom Walton says:

> "The first men whom our Saviour deare
> Did chuse to wait upon him here,
> Blest *fishers* were."

It is a club of anglers which has seen and formed a part of the most interesting period of our colonial history, and has preserved to this day, in our second largest city, an example of colonial life intact amid the wondrous changes through which our country has passed since its formation; and now, old but vigorous as in its youth, maintains the rights and ancient customs of the State in Schuylkill as jealously as when it sent its formal invitation to Washington, and welcomed its Governor, Samuel Morris, on his return from the Revolutionary army.

The Schuylkill Fishing Company was organized in 1732 and called "The Colony in Schuylkill." There were no States then. The "Colonial hall" in which the Colony met was on the estate of Mr. William Warner, called "Baron Warner," to whom was paid an annual tribute of three sun-perch. The payment came, in course of time, to be attended with some ceremony, the Governor of the Colony appointing three "citizens," who placed the sun perch on the large pewter dish known as the Penn platter, which was brought to this country by William Penn and given to the Colony. The citizens then presented the fish, with great respect, to Baron Warner.

The "hall" was occupied by the "Colony" until 1812, when it was condemned, and on March 25 the Company assembled and assisted the master builder and his workmen in raising the frame of another building. The new "baron" of the estate, Mr. Rundle, at this time, gave a seven-year lease of the ground occupied, at an annual rental of one white perch, payable in June of each year. In 1822 the passage of the fish to the Castle having been obstructed by the building of the dam at Fairmount, it was recommended by a committee of "citizens" that the Castle should be removed from the old domain at Eaglesfield, Rundle's Barony, to a suitable site which the committee had found near Rambo's Rock, a short distance down the river. The moving was safely effected on May 7, and at Rambo's Rock until 1887 the State in Schuylkill held its "gala" and "fishing" days and old-fashioned festivities. The change of the old Castle to its present situation on the Delaware River near Andalusia was made in November, 1887, and now it is to be hoped its wanderings have ceased.

The chronicles of the Schuylkill Fishing Company up to 1830 were published in that year by William Milnor, jr., a member, and his volume is now one of the prizes of the collector of angling literature. The book under notice contains a reprint of Milnor's, and its continuation to 1888 under the direction of a committee of members; and also includes with the reprint the memoirs of the Gloucester Fox Hunting Club, which flourished near Philadelphia for fifty years from 1766, and numbered in its list of members some of those of the Schuylkill Fishing Company. At the falls of the Schuylkill early in the eighteenth century there was an association similar to the Schuylkill Colony, whose house was sacked and burned by the Hessians during the Revolution. On the return of peace the remnant of the Society of "Fort St. David's" united its forces with those of the State in Schuylkill, adding what was left of its property to the common stock. This included "five immense pewter dishes of divers forms for the display of a barbacue or a large rock fish at the festive board."

But two individuals of the Colony proved recreant to the cause of the independence of the United States at the time of the Revolutionary struggle, while others rendered signal service to their country during that period. In 1782, while the war was still raging, the Colony came out with a formal manifesto and new code of laws, becoming, by the adoption of the latter, so it is stated in page 48, "a sovereign and independent State," and the "court-house" was thereafter called "the Castle of the State in Schuylkill."

In March, 1789, it was specially recorded that Mr. Benjamin Scull, the Prince of Fishermen, produced a trout, "which he this day took in Schuylkill, that measured 15 inches." The same worthy, about this time, also caught a shad with a baited hook, the first known instance. Two years later the event of the season was the leaping on board one of the vessels belonging to the fleet of "a sturgeon 4 feet in length, of which the company then present made a delicious repast."

In 1812, "The good old Governor, Samuel Morris, usually distinguished by the appellation of 'Christian Samuel,' departed this life in the 78th year of his age." His virtues are still honored at every stated meeting of the Company, at which first "The memory of Washington" is drunk standing, and "The memory of our late worthy Gov. Morris" succeeds. The frying-pan of Gov. Morris is still among the cherished possessions of the Company. On July 21, 1825, Gen. Lafayette concluded, as he says, "his tour of all the States of the Union by visiting that in Schuylkill, of which he was made an honorary member," invested with a hat and apron, and introduced to the kitchen, where he occupied himself in turning the beefsteaks on the gridiron.

The year 1829 concludes the reprint of the history written by Mr. Milnor, and the last chapter "adverts briefly to some unrecorded but well-defined and all-essential usages, a rigid adherence to which has preserved, and will preserve, the Company from degeneracy and dissolution." From these we select the following for mention:

Anybody made a candidate by the votes of a majority of eight members is at liberty to visit the Company on fishing days. The purveyor or caterer for each stated day obtains the list of his Company, the keys, etc., and provides frugally and abundantly at the joint expense of all catered for.

The only meat bought is sirloin beef-steaks. These are not "cleansed by washing off the exuding juices before they are committed to the gridirons, nor are their juices allowed to escape by puncture with a fork in turning, nor is butter nor any high seasoning used, the meat remaining on the coals until the 'Ho! steak's ready' note of preparation is given." The method of cooking fish is also narrated, and that of compounding "governor," a noted punch drunk at the banquets of the company. At the centennial celebration of the State in Schuylkill, on May 1, 1832, a long and learned ode was recited by J. N. Barker, several original songs sung, and numerous toasts drunk, among them—"Our Angling Ancestors: they have exchanged the troubled waters of this world for the calm ocean of eternity"; "Good old laws and regulations revered and strictly adhered to, the grand secret of the unparalleled duration and prosperity of the Fishing Company of the State in Schuylkill."

Passing on to 1842, we find, among other notabilia, that "Citizen Philip Physic made a gift to the State of two books containing the words of many popular songs, with the understanding that they were always to be kept in the Company's chest ready for immediate use." In 1843 the most remarkable event chronicled is

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that on August 11 "Citizen Fotterall, determining that his catering day should not go unsolemnized, and finding no citizen to assist him, repaired alone to the grounds, and there, in stately solitude, brewed one tumbler of punch and drank it, cooked one steak and etceteras and eat them, offered the regular toasts, and retired in good order, sending the Governor a full report of the proceedings." Two years later, a grave violation of duty on the part of a caterer who absented himself on a fishing day, is recorded. A special meeting was at once called and the offending member fined $5. No repetition of so heinous an offence is found for the next forty-five years.

On October 3, 1861, the closing day of the season, the stars and stripes were lowered, while the whole company sang, uncovered, "The Star-Spangled Banner," and "during the war of the Rebellion it became a sacred custom for all present to stand around that emblem of our nationality as slowly it descended, and bless it with our country's anthem." These were not barren professions of loyalty, as several members of the Company gave their lives to the Union cause, and we find that no fewer than thirteen of them served in the field during the war.

This country certainly can show nothing like the State in Schuylkill, and as a curious and instructive history the simple and unpretentious records cannot fail to prove delightful reading to those not wholly carried away by the whirl of modern life. A few years ago Robert Adams, jr., published in the *Century Magazine* an illustrated article on the Schuylkill Fishing Company, which gives many details of its proceedings in a most interesting way. The present history is handsomely manufactured and well illustrated with portraits of distinguished citizens of the State and views of the Castle and its surroundings. So important a book to the collector might have been made still more desirable had it been in two volumes, each with a separate title-page. A limited number of copies are offered to the public.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

Prof. Robert E. Smith's work on 'Graphics' (Longmans) easily deserves to be placed at the head of our list. The mechanical execution of the book and the accompanying "Atlas of Diagrams" is of the highest order. The minuteness and thoroughness of the author's knowledge of his subject, his ingenuity in avoiding difficulties, his fertility in inventing new and elegant processes, and the skill and practical good sense with which he discriminates between those cases where the graphic method is applicable and those where the ordinary methods of calculation are most advantageous, are all so marked that, if his manual dexterity is in like proportion (and the beauty and accuracy of his diagrams would seem to indicate that it is), he must be one of the most accomplished draughtsmen in the world. Prof. Smith is also a very accomplished, we might perhaps say a profound, mathematician. Thus, chapter vii., on "Vector-Summation," shows that thorough appreciation and complete mastery of the labors of Clerk Maxwell and Rowan Hamilton which enables him to make clear, practical applications of their more abstract principles.

Most of the matters treated by Prof. Smith in this first part of his treatise relate to mechanical engineering, and more especially to the statical part of mechanics. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that it is intended to take the place of the ordinary treatises on these subjects. A person who had never studied a treatise on statics would waste his time if he attempted to make use of this book. The more thorough and accurate the student's knowledge of mechanics, the more complete his mastery of the ordinary mathematical processes applied in the solution of mechanical problems, the better will he appreciate Prof. Smith's graphic methods and the greater will be his confidence in the results obtained. We sincerely hope the patronage extended to Prof. Smith's treatise will be sufficient to warrant the speedy publication of his second and still more important part.

The text-books in geometry used in British schools may be divided into three classes. Of the largest of these classes Messrs. Hall and Stevens's 'Text-book of Euclid's Elements' (Macmillan) is a more than ordinarily good representative. As in politics and religion, so in the matter of teaching geometry, there are parties in Great Britain. These parties have, for the last half century, been in continual conflict. One party, the ultra-conservatives, regards the 'Elements' of Euclid with a reverence inferior only to that with which the great majority of Christians regard the Bible. But as both the 'Elements' and the Bible are in dead languages, translations are indispensable, and the same party looks upon Simpson's translation of the 'Elements' much as the great body of Christians look upon the King James version of the Bible. They consider the substitution of any other text-book of geometry as an insidious attempt to sap the foundations of geometrical truth, a tacit confession of the intellectual weakness of the rising generation, a fraudulent pretence by which the teacher seeks to cover up his inability to teach the genuine science and to excuse himself and his pupils from the performance of a rigid duty. Another party, the radicals, regards Euclid himself as a man of great genius, and his 'Elements' as one of those books which, like Aristotle's 'Analytics,' or Newton's 'Principia,' or Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' or Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' marks an epoch in the intellectual history of the human race. But they consider the 'Elements' as wholly unsuited for use as a text-book in the present age of the world, needlessly difficult of comprehension by the young, unadapted to modern methods of teaching and modern modes of thought. The members of this party demand an entirely new book. They believe it is possible to construct one which will satisfy all theoretical and practical requirements, will be more in accordance with modern methods of instruction, and will necessitate the expenditure of far less time and labor than is implied in the mastery of the 'Elements' of Euclid. The strength of these opinions led, a few years ago, to the formation of the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. A text-book of Geometry has been published by this Association. To what extent it fulfils their intentions, this is not the place to discuss. A third party—a kind of "Liberal Unionists"—far exceeds both the others in numbers, and is represented by the great majority of the mathematical teachers of Great Britain. The number and variety of text-books of geometry produced by members of this party, especially during the last ten years, is very great. They have one common characteristic—they all profess on their title-pages to be editions of the 'Elements' of Euclid. They differ principally in the extent to which they carry their alterations, omissions, and additions.

Messrs. Hall and Stevens give us the first six books of Euclid—all that are usually studied in an elementary course — substantially in the form in which they appear in Simson's edition. The fifth book, which treats of ratio and proportion, has been entirely recast. We will say a few words in regard to it further on. The chief peculiarity of Messrs. Hall and Stevens's edition is the extent and variety of the additions. After each important proposition a large number of exercises are given, and at the end of each book additional exercises, theorems, notes, etc., etc. These are generally well selected, often ingenious and interesting, but the general impression of such a book is that geometry is not so much a science as a vast collection of facts and observations, connected with each other in various ways, but hardly susceptible of reduction to an orderly, consistent, in fine, scientific whole.

Messrs. Hall and Stevens's reconstruction of the fifth book of Euclid, on ratio and proportion, is based on a work of De Morgan, published more than half a century ago. De Morgan's book, a thin octavo of 87 pages, was a kind of commentary on Euclid's fifth book, and was marked by that clearness of statement and felicity of illustration in which he was perhaps unsurpassed by any mathematician who ever lived. The present editors of Euclid have often adopted his language, and their points of view are mostly the same as his. But we are inclined to think they would have done better to abandon Euclid altogether, and write a professedly new treatise on the subject. The fifth book of Euclid is notoriously the most difficult in his 'Elements.' But the difficulties are, in great part, inherent in the subject itself, and are to be overcome not so much by the study of any treatise as by the constant application of principles to specific cases. There are a great number of minute details about the construction of this edition, and its mechanical execution, which we have no space to mention, but all showing the care, the patience, and the labor which have been bestowed upon it. On the whole, we think it the most usable edition of Euclid that has yet appeared.

Prof. N. F. Dupuis's 'Synthetic Geometry' (Macmillan) has nothing in common with Euclid or any of the ordinary text-books of geometry, except that it treats the same subject. The author does not expressly say whether he assumes that the student has previously studied Euclid or any other of the common text-books, but he says in his preface that "the whole intention in preparing the work has been to furnish the student with that kind of geometrical knowledge which may enable him to take up successfully the modern works on analytical geometry." Still he treats the most important parts of elementary geometry in a manner peculiar to himself; but he also treats a great number of other subjects which find no place in ordinary elementary text books; thus, section 111 of part ii. treats of the "Geometric Interpretation of Algebraic Forms"; part v. treats, among other things, of "Anharmonic Ratios," a subject which occupies so large a place in that remarkable work, the 'Géométrie Supérieure' of Chasles. Prof. Dupuis's book is a valuable acquisition to the library of the professional mathematician, but it seems to us to belong to the class of works with which the authors will do better work than anybody else.

The 'Geometrical Conics' of Messrs. Cockshott and Walters (Macmillan) is interesting as showing, in the statement of its definitions and propositions and in its arrangement, the manner in which the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching thinks the subject should be presented to pupils. We have no room to criticise their work. It consists, in the first place, in having added demonstrations to the propositions of the Association.

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Immediately after the treatment of the parabola, which is placed first, they have inserted a section of half-a-dozen pages on "Orthogonal Projection." One-half of this small space is occupied by the figures necessary for the elucidation of the subject, but they have succeeded in making an admirable presentment of its fundamental principles, containing all that is needed in subsequent parts of the work. The most striking characteristic is the immense number of problems upon which the pupil may test his mastery of the subject. There are, if we have counted rightly, 203 of these "riders," inserted at various places throughout the body of the work. At the end of the book we have 31 "important propositions to be proved by the reader," followed by 496 problems, nearly all of which are taken from examination papers prepared at the different colleges of the University of Cambridge. The shortness of human life, especially of that portion of it which it is possible to devote to the study of conic sections, and more especially still of that portion which a student at school or college can devote to that subject, forbids the supposition that the authors expected any one pupil to do all this work. It is a great mine from which pupils, professors, and amateurs can draw as inclination prompts or occasion requires.

We some time ago recorded our opinion that the elaborate treatise on Statics by Prof. Minchin was, for those acquainted with the higher mathematics, the best in existence. We at the same time recommended the 'Treatise on Elementary Statics' of Mr. John Greaves, both because it was an excellent work by an accomplished mathematician, and because it was written with the express design of serving as an introduction to Prof. Minchin's great work. Mr. Greaves now gives us a still smaller and more elementary 'Statics for Beginners' (Macmillan). For those who intend to study Mr. Greaves's former work, and yet desire to commence with as simple a book as possible, there are obvious advantages in beginning with one by the same author. Even those who have no present intention of pursuing the study beyond its most elementary principles and applications, will not go amiss in using a book especially adapted to serve as an introduction to a higher course.

Of Mr. W. E. Johnson's 'Treatise on Trigonometry' (Macmillan) all that we can say is that it is a very large and elaborate work, better suited, as it seems to us, to the library of the professional mathematician than for use in preparing lessons by the student for the classroom. Large as it is, it does not treat Spherical Trigonometry at all. The last chapter, on the "Geometrical Interpretation of Imaginaries," is well worth the attention of mathematicians.

The excellence and the widely extended use of the previously published text-books of Prof. John Casey create a presumption in favor of his last one on 'Spherical Trigonometry' (Longmans). Those who examine it will find that presumption fully justified. One feature of the book is that it gives the original sources not only of such propositions and processes as are out of the usual course of instruction, but often of those which might properly be considered as having long since become the common property of mathematicians. These historical and bibliographical notices often contain curious and interesting information which, while relieving the monotony of demonstrations and formulas, excites the interest and curiosity of the student. As is now the fashion, the number of exercises is very great; the book contains over five hundred.

Appended to the preface of Messrs. Wentworth, McLellan, and Glashan's 'Algebraic Analysis' (Ginn & Co.) is the following "Note," signed by Prof. Wentworth and Dr. McLellan: "It is due Mr. Glashan to state that the main part of the work on this algebra has been done by him." After careful examination, we cannot avoid the inference that the book is Mr. Glashan's, and that Messrs. Wentworth and McLellan have had very subordinate parts in the composition of it. If we were to venture an hypothesis, we should say that these gentlemen have probably examined the manuscript with sufficient care to satisfy themselves that it is worthy of their endorsement to the extent that Prof. Wentworth, who has a wide reputation as the author of mathematical text-books, and Dr. McLellan, who occupies a responsible official position in one of the departments of the educational machinery of the Dominion of Canada, are each willing to figure as associate authors of the work. They may well do so. It is a work of much more than ordinary merit. Those merits will become more apparent on the publication of a companion volume, which the authors say is in the course of preparation, containing demonstrations of the theorems, solutions of the examples, and other information more especially adapted to the use of private students who wish to pursue their studies without the assistance of a teacher. But there is another promise of the authors, or, as we are inclined to think, of Mr. Glashan, that if the patronage extended to this part i. shall be sufficient to warrant it, part ii. will follow, and a synopsis of its contents is given. We strongly urge all teachers of mathematics, and all interested in mathematical studies, to provide themselves with this book, not only on account of its own merits and utility, but in order to secure the publication of the second part, which, if executed in accordance with the programme announced in the preface to this part, and with the same skill, will bring within a manageable compass, and illustrate by examples, a vast amount of mathematical knowledge of the very highest order, practical, historical, bibliographical, and speculative, which now lies scattered through the pages of mathematical journals, foreign treatises, and the proceedings of learned societies.

The name of Prof. John D. Runkle will awaken in the minds of most of our older mathematicians pleasing recollections of the *Mathematical Monthly*, a journal which, a little over thirty years ago, was founded principally through his enthusiasm and perseverance, of which he was the editor, which presented to the eye the most beautiful specimen of mathematical typography then to be found either in this country or in Europe, and which reckoned among its contributors the ablest American mathematicians of that time, and many younger men who have since taken their places and achieved world-wide reputations. The intense political excitement of 1860, and the absorbing interest of the tremendous military struggle that followed, turned men's money as well as their thoughts into other channels, and the *Monthly* succumbed.

Prof. Runkle's 'Plane Analytic Geometry' (Ginn & Co.) is a very able work and well adapted for use as a text-book, but it is very large. A second volume, on 'Solid Analytic Geometry,' is promised, and it would seem that the extent of the course would necessitate, on the part of the average college professor and student, the omission of a considerable portion. But the book is intended primarily for the students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and special technological schools can and ought to devote more time to mathematics, especially to analytic geometry, than is possible in the department of arts in most colleges. For those who intend to become engineers, architects, astronomers, or teachers of mathematics, the work seems admirably constructed.

Mathematicians will welcome the appearance of Prof. A. R. Hardy's treatise on 'Analytic Geometry' (Ginn & Co.), because they will be glad to see another specimen of the work of the accomplished author of the 'Elements of Quaternions,' and those who "hate mathematics" will welcome it because they think its completion may clear the way for another novel from the pen of the author of 'Passe Rose.' Prof. Hardy's treatise is much smaller than Prof. Runkle's, yet covers more ground, for it treats of solid geometry as well as plane. It is quite large enough for use as a college text-book, and we highly approve of shortening somewhat the course of plane, in order to make room for at least the elements of solid geometry.

The second edition of Prof. Wm. E. Byerly's 'Integral Calculus' is more than double the size of the first. The chapter on "Definite Integrals" is increased to four times its original length. This is well; it is, perhaps, the most important part of the Calculus. The chapter on "Line, Surface, and Space Integrals" is entirely new. But the most important addition is the long chapter (56 pp.) on "Elliptic Integrals." Not only is this chapter a very good one, but, so far as we know, this is the first time the subject has been treated in an American text-book. Another new chapter (xvii.) is an "Introduction to the Theory of Functions," which "was sketched out and in part written by Prof. B. O. Peirce." On the whole, if any person competent to the task were to compare these text-books with those on the same subjects in use half a century ago, he could not help noticing how large a portion of the recent works is occupied by matters then unknown, or known only to a few great mathematicians; nor could he help admitting that the "world does move," and that, too, forwards and upwards.

MORE NOVELS.

Children of Gibeon. By Walter Besant. Harper & Bros.

A Family Tree, and Other Stories. By Brander Matthews. Longmans, Green & Co.

Two Runaways, and Other Stories. By Harry Stillwell Edwards. The Century Co.

Ogeechee Cross-Firings. By R. M. Johnston. Harper & Bros.

NOBODY knows whether the women of Gibeon were included among "all the inhabitants" who sent forth that embassy which appeared in the camp of the Israelites, footsore and ragged, their wine-skins all rent and their provisions reduced to a mouldy crust. Most likely the elders of Gibeon were wholly responsible for the theatrical device which secured a league with Joshua, and took good care not to subject it to incisive and offensive criticism from their wives and daughters. Yet the women shared the punishment decreed by Joshua when he knew that he had been duped, and that the pretended travellers from a far country really dwelt at his door. "Let them live," he said, "but let them be hewers of wood and drawers of water unto all the congregation," thus keeping his faith and the oath of all the Princes, yet not missing the sweetness of revenge.

In the course of ages, by the force of might and by strategy, the men of Gibeon have managed slightly to modify the doom of per-

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petual servile labor. The women have been less fortunate, which is part of the fate of all women. Christian civilization has brought no rest or respite to the women of Gibeon; science, with its innumerable appliances for increase of comfort and diminution of toil, has done nothing to mitigate their misery; politicians and philanthropists—always talking, yet always full of talk—have not lifted a hair's weight of care from their shoulders; every year their feet in increasing numbers go down into darker places, and there is no light nor hope of any. Now and again a lance is broken for their sorrows, a song sung, a story told, but rarely has Providence sent them so stout and able a champion as Mr. Besant. He does battle nobly with effective weapons in skilled hands, and he summons, straight and fearlessly, all the daughters of the "Princes of the Congregation" to rally round him and carry on the fight. His novel is admirable, both as a novel and an appeal for a social reform. It is never gloomy, nor has it any affinity with philanthropic tracts. It does not produce hopeless depression, but stirs wholesome indignation. The poor are not sentimentalized, with virtues magnified at the expense of the rich, nor is the oppressor raked over the coals for miseries which are no fault of his. He is accountable for enough wretchedness, and any justice that can be done him is the sort of justice which ought to make him hide his face and cry for mercy.

The plot of the story is well constructed, with enough romance and mystery to excite curiosity, and providing good opportunities for jogging several varieties of slumbering consciences. Unlike most grumblers and would-be reformers, Mr. Besant suggests practical ways for ameliorating the conditions which he describes and deplores. The daughters of the Princes may work a reformation by personal effort and by combination. When each one who wears or uses in any way the product of the toil of her sisters of Gibeon shall know that each sister is honestly paid for her work, then the burden will be lightened and the curse lifted.

In one of the short stories included under the title, 'A Family Tree,' Mr. Matthews says: "A good idea for a short story is a shy bird and doesn't come for the calling." Mr. Matthews knows the bird perfectly well, and rarely attempts to palm off an inferior species. In none of these stories is the idea bad, but unfortunately in several it is so attenuated that one must be supersensitive to catch it. The charm of a short story lies not so much in what is written as in what is insinuated, yet for those not in the author's confidence a slight footing on solid ground is indispensable. Mr. James, who is a master of insinuation, occasionally overdoes it, and Mr. Matthews, who is less subtle and delicate than he, becomes irritatingly vague when he has not a bird of the finest quality sure in his hand. Nobody could divine from what he is given to go upon, whether "Memories" is a tragedy by implication or not. It is cruel, after compelling us to follow the very commonplace, sentimental reminiscences of Lieutenant Robert Douglas, not to give us the least clue for deciding whether he rescued "Pike County Pete's kids" or perished in the blizzard. We are all tired to death of the story-tellers straining to tell something, but it is very doubtful whether the story-tellers whose aim is to tell nothing will wear as well. "Notes of an Uneventful Voyage" is similarly defective. A little stability and definiteness could not have done any harm, and might have justified so much noting of insignificance.

The idea of a Family Tree is not the sort of dea which Mr. Matthews can trifle with most acceptably. His treatment of the humorously supernatural is inimitable, but the supernatural which ought to make one's flesh creep eludes him. Even in using a mildly cynical, very modern youth to link together a series of grimly tragic events, there is a frivolity destructive of any emotion of horror which those events might excite. The idea of "On the Battle-Field" is wholly good, and by the manner of narration a fantastic improbability becomes a real, true story. "Scherzi and Skizzen" are exquisitely frothy papers, including a very witty travesty of Chesterfield's letters. The keenly satirical drawing of a common type of American is still so good-natured that it will cause a grin of appreciation to expand the countenance of every John Quincy A. Chesterfield in the republic. "Postal Cards" are the cleverest work in a book of which all the workmanship is clever and polished in the modern style—a style that has more sparkle than elegance.

There is nothing elusive in the ideas or finical in the management of the stories in the volume entitled 'Two Runaways.' Each is an episode comic or tragic, told plainly and naturally, with small regard for literary graces. The inexhaustible negro, run close by the poor white, supplies both the fun and the pathos. If the language of printed books has any appreciable influence on speech, the future of English in America is awful to contemplate. Unless a sudden blight should fall upon the dialect writers, the native tongue may be quite extirpated, and, a generation or two hence, Americans may be communicating with each other in a "jangling noise of words unknown," a hideous gabble. However bad the language of these stories may be, each is for one reason or another worth telling, and one, "De Valley an' de Shadder," has dramatic fire and passion of remarkable force and dignity.

Mr. Johnston's story, 'Ogeechee Cross-Firings,' like most of his preceding stories, is a wonderful example of corrupt and distorted language. The peculiarity of his books is that the jargon of the uneducated people is hardly less incomprehensible than the hifalutin discourse of the "cultured classes," and much less fatiguing. Mr. Johnston's delineation of the slave-owner in middle Georgia is doubtless faithfully realistic. The plainness and primitiveness of his portraits must be shocking to those who cherish in memory an ideal planter, a gentleman of chivalrous honor and distinguished manners, with Johnsonian sentences rolling off his tongue as easily as smoke curls from his very costly cigar. It is granted by the wicked that truth is wholesome; yet even the good will admit that it is sometimes uninteresting. This story of middle Georgia may be counted among the uninteresting truths.

BRISBIN'S TREES AND TREE-PLANTING.

Trees and Tree-Planting. By Gen. James S. Brisbin, U. S. A. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. 258.

In Mr. Edward Emerson's charming memoir of his father's life in Concord, there has been saved for us a truthful and ingenious toast proposed by Col. Shattuck: "The Orator of the Day; his *subject* deserves the attention of every agriculturist." We may say the same of this book on Tree-planting. Its subject deserves the attention of every one who wishes well to his country, but we are not persuaded that the book itself deserves any attention at all.

It is all the more disappointing because its author was one of the first in our country to call attention to the deplorable effects of forest-waste, and we had the right to expect from him a work on forest-saving which should exhibit evidences of careful observation, or at least of careful editing of the observations of others. In this treatise we find no evidence of either. Notes of original observations are conspicuously absent, and the citations from other writers are given with a carelessness which would be amusing if it were not provoking. There is not only a failure to give the page and chapter of the references, but the volumes themselves are not mentioned, and in one case at least the name of the author cited is given incorrectly.

Moreover, there is no sense of proportion governing the citations, as will be illustrated by the following naïve remark (p. 47). After referring to the great importance of certain experiments made by the late President Clarke of Amherst, the author says: "Unable, from want of space, to present our readers with the full report, we endeavor to condense the material portions into a brief space." Overlooking the complete absurdity of introducing into a work on Trees and Tree-planting occupying only 258 pages the whole of a popular lecture on a minor topic, we may call attention to the fact that the brief abstract as it stands consumes six of the pages, and that, too, under the startling title of the "Blood of Trees." But this title does not seem so strange when we find that the author gives us, later on, nine pages filled with an account of the medicinal properties of the trees of the United States, prepared by "a firm of Manufacturing Chemists." Among the Trees mentioned in this account of drugs figure the "American alder" and the "black alder," Aralia spinosa (written in this book Arabia), and the broad-leaved laurel, all of which are, to be sure, goodly shrubs, but hardly to be reckoned as trees in the sense in which that word is understood by most authors. However, it is hard to know exactly what our author means by the term Tree, since (on p. 167) he gives us, incredible as it must seem, a paragraph on sheep laurel, otherwise known as lambkill, a plant which, under favorable circumstances, may attain the height of three feet. But, in order that this humble plant may have company in a work on Trees, we are given also a section devoted to the "ground hemlock," which, according to Gen. Brisbin, "is always a straggling, prostrate shrub," and another to the "shining willow," which, we are told, "if carefully cultivated, may reach the height of fifteen or twenty feet, but in its wild or native state is much smaller."

The difficulty of knowing exactly what our author means by Tree is increased by the following description of a small herb found in California (p. 32): "The soap-plant of California is not only beautiful, but useful, the bulbs being preferred by those who use them to the finest quality of soap. There is *another* tree found in South America, the bark of which is used as soap also." Our readers must pardon us for italicizing the word another.

Gen. Brisbin gives some references to the usefulness of a few of the trees not included in the list furnished by the firm of manufacturing chemists. For instance (on p. 109), we have an account of the cedran tree, "which grows only in Central America" (but which may become of commercial importance in view of the pleasant relations established by the visit of the members of the Pan-American Congress). Mr. John P. Curry's

"attention was first called to the cedran tree while on the Isthmus as consulting engineer for the Panama Railroad Company, by observing the neutralizing effect that its beans produced upon a snake-bitten buzzard. The bird was struck by a rattlesnake, and then made its

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way to a cedran tree, and, after pecking at one of its beans, flew off apparently uninjured. A native to whom Mr. Curry related this incident scouted the idea of a rattlesnake-bite being dangerous, and exemplified his confidence in the efficiency of an antidote by bringing a snake of twelve rattles the following day and allowing himself to be bitten by it. He then took a cedran bean, and, having chewed it, swallowed a portion, and saturated the wound with his saliva; after which treatment no disagreeable feelings or unpleasant effects resulted from the bite."

And now comes an example of the author's method of dealing with important facts:

"Mr. Curry, after having been thus satisfied of the marvellous curative power of these beans, verified his experience by writing to the *Alta California* newspaper, and carried about a peck of the beans to San Francisco, where many successful experiments of their efficiency were made by Prof. Lauzwert, a German physician, on dogs, cats, and rabbits, etc., which were allowed to be bitten by rattlesnakes. After these tests the neutralizing power of these beans was never known to fail when applied to human beings bitten by these reptiles."

After this, it cannot surprise us to learn that a tincture manufactured from its roots by the firm of manufacturing chemists before mentioned is a "safer antidote than whiskey or alcohol," and that the same "is also a cure for gout and an antidote for hydrophobia." Of antidotes for snake-bites there would appear to be no lack in our forests, for we read on p. 142 that the bark of the catalpa is "a very good and sure antidote for the bites of snakes" (kind not mentioned). Further on, other statements are made regarding the same plant: "The honey collected from the flowers is very poisonous, and produces effects closely allied to the effects of the honey collected from the yellow jasmine. The flowers are *also* valuable as a remedy for asthma."

Very much that the author has given us regarding the age of trees is nearly as uncritical as the foregoing about their supposed uses. His account of the "big trees" of the Pacific Coast is unpardonably incorrect, since it comes from the pen of one presuming to write on the subject of trees. He has not made use of the trustworthy materials within easy reach, such as the 'Botany of California,' Dr. Gray's 'Sequoia,' and the like; if these were not at hand, he had little right to prepare even a single paragraph on the subject. We are told, for instance, "that they are mostly three thousand years old" (p. 29). But what shall be thought of a writer on the forest trees of America who could have allowed the following sentence to appear in his book (p. 86)? Speaking of the honey locust, the author permits himself to say: "Michaux, sent out by France twenty years ago, predicted that it would become valuable as a hedge-plant." André Michaux visited this country in the last century, arriving in New York in 1785. The author seems to have no clear ideas regarding the lapse of time.

The work is neither trustworthy as a popular treatise nor useful from a scientific point of view. Some portions are quite out of place in a scientific volume, and not sufficiently dignified even for so-called popular science. Thus, on page xxiv. of the introduction, Gen. Brisbin speaks of his boyhood and tells us how "Annie Berry sprained her foot so terribly, on that day, she was laid up for weeks, and the old doctor shook his cane and threatened what he would do if we ever frightened Annie again—all of which we knew was talk, for the doctor loved us too well to harm a hair on our young heads." Such bursts of confidence as this show plainly that the author writes pretty much as he would talk to his friends when wishing to convince them of the necessity of caring for trees and tree-planting; he would not then think it necessary "to verify his references," nor to maintain throughout his conversation due proportion in the treatment of his topics. But a treatise on so important a subject should be accurate and well-proportioned. This treatise, unfortunately, is neither. It cannot aid at all in the great work which its author has so much at heart, for its matter, commonplace to the last degree, should have been relegated to the columns of some country newspaper. There, from the ephemeral nature of the publication, it could do but little harm.

It remains for us to state that the volume is illustrated by a fine portrait of the author.

How to Catalogue a Library. By Henry B. Wheatley. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1889.

THE latest volume in the "Book Lovers' Library" may be cordially commended to all who cherish the popular delusion that anybody can make a catalogue; and even the professional cataloguer may learn something from this intelligent discussion of the difficult points in cataloguing, and careful comparison of the various codes of rules. The introduction treats of the definition of a catalogue, and is followed by a brief account of the codes in use in the British Museum, Bodleian, and Cambridge libraries. Jewett's, Cutter's, and the English Library Association's rules are also noticed, but no mention is made of the code of rules prepared in 1883 by the coöperative committee of the American Library Association, and fairly representing the general practice of this country. The question of the best form for a catalogue is next taken up, and the preference given to print, though it is admitted that manuscript catalogues must always be used in a large number of cases, and especially in private libraries. For a manuscript catalogue the book form is recommended, and the card catalogue dismissed with scant courtesy. The favor in which it is held in this country appears to the author "something almost incomprehensible, and one can only ask why such a primitive mode of arrangement should be preferred to a book catalogue. I can scarcely imagine anything more maddening than a frequent reference to cards in a drawer; and my objection is not theoretical, but formed on a long course of fingering slips or cards."

It is curious to see how our English friends continue to fight shy of the dictionary catalogue. Mr. Wheatley, indeed, gives it a half-hearted and grudging approval, conceding that, "in the abstract, the most useful kind of catalogue is that which contains the titles and subject references in one alphabet"; but he adds that "in libraries containing more than 10,000 volumes it will be found more useful to have a distinct index of subjects, while in catalogues of libraries below that number it will generally be advisable to include the subject references with the titles in one general alphabet." We are not aware that the Boston Athenæum or Boston Public Library has found it necessary, or even desirable, to abandon the dictionary plan, though these libraries contain considerably more than ten times 10,000 volumes.

The fourth chapter contains an interesting, as well as instructive, comparison of the various rules concerning the treatment of title-pages. The author's preferences are in the main sound, though exception may be taken to his treatment of anonymous works, catalogues, and prefixes in foreign names. The vexed question of the authorship of academical dissertations is discussed at length in a paper by B. R. Wheatley, which contains some useful suggestions, but, oddly enough, the author's rules give no directions whatever for the treatment of this puzzling class of publications. On the question of the arrangement of transactions and journals the author, though evidently influenced by the British Museum practice, seems inclined to hedge a little, and says that, if a library contains many magazines, journals, or transactions of societies, etc., it will be well to keep them distinct from the general catalogue, but if they are few, they can be included in the general alphabet. The rules for a small library which follow the discussions are, with very few exceptions, clear and sensible so far as they go; but even a beginner in cataloguing, or the librarian of a small library, would, on the whole, do better to take as a guide one of the fuller codes, for, as Mr. Cutter says, "in planning a manuscript catalogue it should be remembered that a small library may grow into a large one, and that if the catalogue is made in the best way at first, there will be no need of alterations."

The Political Life of Our Time. By David Nicol. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

FEW readers in this hurried age will have the patience to learn of our political life through the medium of these pretentious volumes. The sight of a chapter entitled "The Development of our Political Culture in the Intellectual Life of India" is sufficiently deterrent, but when we are further bid seek "The Origin of our Political Culture in the Social Life of China," our courage wholly deserts us. We cannot withhold our admiration from an author who states candidly that he has availed himself, without scruple and without prejudice, of every fact and opinion open to him which he has deemed capable of evoking a healthy decision on the many grave interests of our time and country; but, while we wonder, we may not follow. It is indisputable that "the political events of our day succeed each other with great rapidity, and their issues are of such magnitude as to call forth all round the exercise of the most matured judgment"; but this proposition only arouses in us that irrelevant desire for craniological investigation which seized upon Charles Lamb when the Scotchman announced that, in his opinion, Shakspere was a great poet. We grant that "in the present attempt to educate the public mind to a just discrimination of the significance and consequence of passing events, all the representative features of the intellectual and social conflict of our day are merged in the desire to reach that union of philosophical with political and economical truths which the keenest of German critics foresaw would yield the most astounding results to modern society"; but we dare not submit our own mind to this educational process, for fear the result may be more astounding than wholesome. "That way madness lies" for temperaments less serious than this author's.

In short, we find the book absolutely unreadable. We discern that the author has studied much, and we come upon passages from time to time that are intelligible; but after an honest effort to discover what it is all about, we have been obliged to abandon the attempt in despair. Not only is the style singularly impenetrable, but the connection of thought proceeds according to some intellectual law that is to us unknown. We are reluctant to condemn so unsparingly what is evidently the product of patient industry, but we are convinced that ordinary readers would be unable to profit by it. Since it has been possible to write such a book, we suppose that it is possible for minds consti-

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tuted like that of the author to understand it, and we may say that it is at least suggestive. The passages quoted above from the preface we believe give a fair idea of the author's thought as well as style, and we need only say that those who find them instructive will find in the body of the book many more of the same kind.

In and Around Berlin. By Minerva Brace Norton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1889.

THIS little volume is the work of an American woman who, through the "generous sympathy" of her husband, as we learn from the dedication, goes to Berlin for her first residence abroad, lives there a few months, and writes up in a readable way the things that most attracted her attention. We have a chapter of "first impressions," dealing with the habit people have in Berlin of living up several flights of stairs; with the curious stoves and beds, and with the absence of elevators, carpets, bath-rooms, and closets. Then family and social life come in for consideration, the chapter upon this being the longest and most interesting in the book. Domestic customs, table manners, food and cooking, social usages, Christmas, a wedding—such are some of the topics touched upon. A chapter on education has a few pages concerning the Royal Library, and the pleasure of working there, a short account of a gymnasium (compiled from books, the privilege of a visit being so difficult for a woman to obtain), and a fuller account, with interesting details, of two visits to girls' schools. Subsequent chapters treat of such matters as churches, museums, palaces, public works, prominent personages, charities, etc.

For a book purporting to give only the impressions and observations of a short stay in the German capital, a book written with little preparation for the sojourn it describes, and written by one apparently not familiar with the German language, 'In and Around Berlin' is, as was said above, very readable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, W. L. Trying to Find Europe. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Atkinson, E. The Industrial Progress of the Nation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Baker, J. By the Western Sea: A Summer Idyll. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Carnarvon, Earl of. Letters of Philip Dormer Fourth Earl of Chesterfield to his Godson and Successor. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $14.
Ecker, Prof. A. The Anatomy of the Frog. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. I. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Meredith, O. Lucile. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.50.
Miller, S. A. North American Geology and Palæontology, for the Use of Amateurs, Students, and Scientists. Cincinnati: Samuel A. Miller.
Skrine, J. H. A Memory of Edward Thring. Macmillan & Co. $2.
The Green Bag. Vol. I. Boston Book Co.

Fine Arts.

THE BARYE EXHIBITION.—II.

LANDSCAPES BY COROT, ROUSSEAU, AND DAUBIGNY.

WHEN we look at the landscapes in the Exhibition of the works of friends and contemporaries of Barye, we are convinced that there is little profit in praising the work of one master as being better than that of all other masters, and we are reminded of the truth that in art it is often unjust to compare one man's work with another's to the advantage of either when their characteristics and methods are different. For though, in the Retrospective Exhibition at Paris last summer, there could be no doubt of the superiority of Corot, who was admirably represented by some forty pictures, and one of his landscapes there, "Biblis," yields to no other that has ever been painted by anybody in pure poetry and simplicity in the depiction of nature, though no painter ever painted a better landscape, it would be unjust to say that none ever painted one as good. In the Retrospective Exhibition there was not as good a one, but some of the other great landscape-painters were not there seen at their best; and it is because one or two of them are to be seen at their best in the Barye Exhibition that the pictures here are so interesting to those who have seen both exhibitions. There is no work in the New York galleries by Corot that equals the "Biblis," nor is there one that is quite as fine as "La Charette" or the "Crossing the Ford," two of the other notable Corots at Paris; but, on the other hand, there are at least three pictures by Rousseau and an equal number by Daubigny that surpass any works by these painters shown at the Retrospective Exhibition. With "Le Givre," No. 539; "Morning on the Oise," No. 567, and "The Valley of Tiffauges," No. 599, before us, we are safe in asserting that Rousseau may be seen at his best; and in the case of Daubigny, though the three pictures, "Landscape," No. 561; "On the River Oise," No. 579; and "Sunset on the Coast of France," No. 544, are not all among the most important of his works, yet we find in them so many of Daubigny's finest qualities, they one and all reveal so much of that direct, simple painting of nature which characterizes his best work, along with such refined and beautiful sentiment in the conception and such variety of motive, that it is fair to form a definite judgment from them as to the place of Daubigny among his contemporaries and the value of his work in the development of modern landscape-painting.

Among the eleven canvases by Corot in the exhibition, "The Martyrdom of St. Sebastian," No. 528, is perhaps the most widely known, and it is generally counted in the list of the most important of the painter's works. But it is not in this picture, nor in such grandiose compositions as the "Orpheus," exhibited in New York a few years ago at the Bartholdi Loan Collection, that we find the finest of his qualities. Nor shall we find them in that other much-praised picture, "The Evening Star," No. 529, which is dry in *facture* and cheaper in color quality than Corot's better work is wont to be, nor in the "Fauns and Nymphs," No. 594, though this picture in some ways comes up to his highest standard, and, were it not for the rigid straight line of the tree trunk in the middle that mars the composition, and a certain harsh brownness in the general tone of the big rocks above the pool in the foreground, it might be ranked very high. The great masses of foliage are admirably treated, and the sky is one of marvellous purity and depth. With the celebrated "Lake Nemi," No. 584, there is still less fault to find. It is a trifle theatrical in composition (it is avowedly a made-up composition, but it is just a little bit exaggerated in the effort to escape the prosaic), and it is not quite so pure in color nor quite so free from paintiness in the lightest part of the sky, as Corot's very best work is usually. Otherwise, in the rendering of a delicate atmospheric effect, in poetic beauty, and in the harmony of the ensemble, it is admirable, and will bear comparison with the best things from the master's brush. But the best Corot in this exhibition is "La Danse des Amours," No. 616. Here is a picture in which we find the most wonderful atmosphere, the most delightful color harmonies, and the most unobtrusive painting. That enchanting purity and simplicity which we saw in the "Biblis" are echoed here. These noble groups of dark trees, this vibrating, luminous sky, these tender tones of gray and green and warm white—white that is colored, so to speak, by a hundred tints that are reflected in it; these broad, simple masses which balance each other and hold each its indispensable value in the harmony of the whole—these things mark a master work, and here, if we do not find quite all that Corot has said in such a landscape as "Biblis," where nothing seems to be wanting, we do find some of his very finest qualities, and such truth and beauty of expression as belong only to the best of his pictures.

Of all the great painters of landscape the world has known, Corot is incontestably the most purely poetical. Truth is the foundation upon which all his art is based; and, with all his breadth in painting and his synthetical interpretation of nature's moods, he never forgets that fidelity to the facts is all-important, and never substitutes for the real beauty of Nature herself some fancied charm of color or effect of his own, as the English Turner did. Yet actual facts form his basis only, and other painters whose fame is as great as his have insisted more on these facts and made more of them in detail than did Corot. Rousseau appears as such a painter in one of the pictures here, "The Valley of Tiffauges." There are landscape drawings by Rousseau in existence, preparations for pictures on canvas in thin washes of color, with fine lines drawn with a pen or the point of a small brush, in which almost every leaf on a tree is outlined, almost every stalk is shown in a field of grain, hundreds of little blades and stems are exactly indicated in a foreground of grass and herbage. With such a groundwork for a picture, Rousseau has sometimes carried out this fidelity to the smallest detail in painting it, and "The Valley of Tiffauges" is a notable example of the successful treatment of a landscape in this manner. The foreground is a tangle of bushes, weeds, and grass; in the middle distance are close-growing trees encircling the little valley, and beyond are wooded hills. On the left is a cottage half hidden by the foliage; and the pale sunlight which falls gently on a poplar tree in the middle of the picture is not strong enough to light up the sky, which hangs behind the hills with warm gray and black clouds that serve to intensify the effect of the sunlight, and to concentrate the interest in the centre of the composition. The picture is conceived on large lines, and, in spite of the presence of an amount of detail that would be utterly bewildering if it were not painted by a great master, it is exceedingly broad and grand in general effect. It will bear an infinite amount of study, and not an inch of painting on the canvas will be found to vary in treatment from the standard of careful painting of detail that marks that part of it where the interest is concentrated. Everything is given, and yet nothing obtrudes, and, what is perhaps more remarkable still, the artist, while neglecting not even the smallest touch to bring out the leaves on every branch of the trees and every blade of grass, has painted his picture throughout with a splendid scheme of color—a strong, rich, deep ensemble of sombre tints that make of this landscape one of the finest tone studies in the exhibition.

But if we wish to see what Rousseau could do when he did not attempt such a *tour de force* as he has accomplished in the "Valley of Tiffauges," we may look at the "Morning on the Oise," No. 567. This is a picture in which a

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poem is suggested, in which the warm morning sun of midsummer on a pleasant valley, with a river gliding through its fertile meadows, is made to play on trees and field and water in a harmony of golden light. The sky is dusky blue at the horizon, and there are masses of grayish clouds above. In the middle of the picture, the water, reflecting the blue of the sky and the grassy banks of the river, gleams in the sun, and an idle boat with a white sail shines gently in the light. Everything else in the composition is subordinated to this central mass—not that the foreground is slurred over, or that the trees and hills that hem in the sunny valley are not painted with proper fulness; but they are not insisted upon. We feel that they are there, but we look only at the boat on the river, and the smiling sunshine that makes the flowers bloom in the meadows and warms the water where the children are playing on the banks. Doubtless Rousseau has painted pictures that show more robust strength, more power to deal with difficult problems in nature, than this; but it is certain that he never signed a more beautiful little canvas, and that if he, too, is to be called a poet-painter, as Corot is, his best claim to the title is in this enchanting "Morning on the Oise."

In the Louvre there is a magnificent landscape by Rousseau, the celebrated "Sunset," that we call to mind whenever we hear his name mentioned, for his fame might rest on this one picture, and he would not lose the high place he holds among modern painters of landscape. There is another picture at the Barye Exhibition which is its rival among the masterpieces, a picture that could only have been painted by a very great artist, and which ranks among the finest landscapes in the world. We have seen Rousseau as an analyst and a master of technical expression in the "Valley of Tiffauges," and as a synthesist and poet in the "Morning on the Oise." In "Le Givre," he is both, and he reveals in this wonderful picture such a noble strength and such power in the interpretation of nature that we are almost ready to say that nothing could be better than this. Indeed, it would not be too high praise, and it may be justly given. As has been said before, comparisons do not prove much; and if we think that Rousseau and that other landscape painter who, at times, rises to a very high level, Diaz, should properly be placed a little below Corot, we may say that even if this be true, considering the sum of each man's achievements, it is not just to rank such a picture as "Le Givre" with any but the very best. And when we come to consider Daubigny, whose work is the most recent of all of them, and on which we have had less time to wait for the judgment that comes finally when we can appreciate at a distance what a painter's life and work are worth, we may again be embarrassed; for is not Daubigny often the peer of any landscape-painter? Is he not, indeed, sometimes the best of them all? And then Corot seems to be the one who must definitively have the highest place until we see the "Sunset" in the Louvre and "Le Givre," and then we are sure that Rousseau, in these pictures, at least, yields the palm to nobody.

The foreground in "Le Givre" slopes irregularly down away from the front of the picture, and the hoar-frost which gives the picture its title lies on the chilly rocks and dead grass of the hillside. In the valley beyond there are groups of trees that stand up dark and grim against the line of blue hills and the stretch of country that lies cold and cheerless under the heavy clouded sky. At the horizon, the burning red glow of the sun breaks through, and its light gilds the edges of the cloud curtains higher up with yellow and red and crimson. The air has a frosty breath, and the earth is wrapped in gloomy silence. That is the subject-motive of the picture. It is not a merry one, nor yet is it forbidding. It is simply grim and grand. "Le Givre" is magnificently painted; it is broad and strong, but not forced, and there is dignity and power in every brush-stroke. In composition it is natural and unaffected. It is admirably drawn and constructed; in color it is puissant, sober, and rich.

Daubigny lived and studied so much out of doors that he has tried in his pictures, more than any of the great landscape-painters of his day, to preserve the actual look of nature. He was not content to use facts for a basis and paint his remembered impressions. Perhaps it was a matter of temperament with him, or possibly he found the results of such work as he may have attempted if he followed the methods of Corot and others who preceded him less satisfactory than those he achieved when he adhered more closely to his studies from nature. Be that as it may, there is in his work more of the impression of what we fancy we have seen ourselves than there is in the creations of the other great artists, and we are apt to think that Daubigny's landscapes contain more actual truth than is to be found in any others. We shall have to compare him with the painters at work to-day, such as Monet, or Harpignies, or Cazin, to find any one who resembles him in this respect. But while this ever-present fidelity to nature's looks is a conspicuous quality in Daubigny's painting, it by no means overshadows others that are essential in the highest fields of landscape. In the present exhibition, indeed, we have three pictures which show most clearly that Daubigny felt the poetry and the tenderest beauties of nature as much as any man, and, moreover, we are persuaded that in their expression he equals if he does not excel some of those whose reputation is based principally on the presence of such qualities in their painted works. In the little landscape called "On the River Oise," a delightful picture, in which the afternoon sun pours over a pleasant bit of country with a river flowing between green banks, and cows are coming down to the water's edge from the cool shade cast by the trees that grow high on the sloping meadow, there is expressed all the quiet beauty of a pastoral scene. It is as refined and sweet in sentiment as any landscape could well be, and there is no trace of the workman who sees only superficial beauty or striking effects. The sky is wonderfully brilliant, and harmonizes delicately with the subtle tints of the distant hills and more positive hues of the foreground, and the canvas is bathed in a gentle golden light. It is very beautiful, this little picture, and we shall hardly find anywhere a more delicious piece of tender color.

But in another picture by the same hand near by, which is catalogued simply as "Landscape," we may find even more charm than in this one. It represents a wide river which fills all the foreground except where the shore frames it in at the left; and beyond a bank with tall poplar trees and a mill that juts out into the stream lies a town with innumerable roofs and gables, and a church spire that points up to the gray clouds which roll in the sky and are reflected in the broad current that flows past the town. There is infinite truth of observation in this picture, and we marvel at the skill of the painter who has put the scene so admirably on canvas, who has given to each thing its proper value—the trees that grow across the river enveloped in the atmosphere, and the tall poplars nearer to us darker against the sky, the town with its gray and white walls reflected in the water, the shadows broken by the ripples, and the great open sky with its clouds of pearly gray—who has painted all this with such justness of vision and without a single discordant note. This is such a picture as a painter loves, and Daubigny is appreciated best by the painters. They like his honest, direct method, his evident sincerity, and they admire his winning, tender way of depicting Nature, copying her many moods with a loving hand that fears to add or take away lest her fair beauty be marred.

If to such charming qualities as are shown in these two admirable landscapes by Daubigny we add vigor and strength and a breadth of conception that marks the great master, and should wish to find them all in one picture, we may turn to a third canvas, "Sunset on the Coast of France." The green sea fills the middle of the picture, and a low headland juts out at the horizon on the right. In the foreground is the rocky beach, with seaweed and wet drift, and, enclosed in rugged walls of rock and sloping ledges, the water in a pool lies still and calm. The upper part of the sky, where it is blue and pale, is reflected in the pool; outside the beach, the sea, with its rolling waves, shows only its own deep, dark green. All this is nobly painted, with a firm, steady swing of the brush, and the wide expanse of the sea is majestic; but the glorious sunset sky is what gives the picture its grandeur. The sun is low down and disappearing at the horizon in a magnificent glow of light—a light so intense that the floating clouds are almost burnt out by it. It is no flaming mass of red and crimson, and there are no crude blotches of flaring yellow, as there would be if a weaker hand had tried to paint it. There is no exaggeration, there is no falsifying, no toning down here to make it more forceful there. It seems to be as absolutely truthful in effect as paint can make it, and its grand beauty cannot be adequately described in words. When we look at it and it grows upon us, when we feel all its splendor and note with what simple means the painter has put before us such a noble and beautiful effect in nature, we cannot hesitate, if we are asked who are the greatest painters of landscape, to reply that Daubigny is one of them, and of the very best.

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